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ABSTRACT

Realizing that small schools in the U.S. will continue in large numbers, this publication was written for American educators seeking to advance the science of small school administration, although it is also hoped that it will assist foreign educators seeking to improve their national system of schools. The small school was not considered as operating under a handicap; rather, these procedures to make educational opportunities available were devised primarily for the small school and operate effectively in that setting. The 12 chapters cover: (1) the role of the small 12-grade school in American education; (2) the small 12-grade school and its community; (3) the elementary school; (4) effective procedures for small high schools; (5) health education and services; (6) audiovisual aids; (7) physical education and playground activities; (8) guidance services; (9) adult education; (10) the faculty and the educational program; (11) the small school plant; and (12) some alternatives in administrative and service units. Chapter 12 briefly presents a sampling of plans for intermediate districts that are responsible for specialized services, demonstrating that standardization with respect to district organization does not exist nor should it. (KM)

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Administration of Small Twelve-Grade Schools

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THE ADMINISTRATION OF THE SMALL TWELVE-GRADE SCHOOL

Knute O. Broady and Lois P. Broady

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INTRODUCTION

Small schools will continue in large numbers in the United States. Even though the means of transportation are improving, the marked sparsity of population in certain sections of our nation will almost certainly make it impractical to bring all pupils together in schools that are beyond the so-called "small" category. The ideal of equality of educational opportunity, to which we universally subscribe in the United States requires that we provide adequate schooling for those who obtain their education in these thousands of small schools. This publication is devoted to the development of plans in such schools for furnishing education which will eliminate the handicaps often needlessly imposed and which will capitalize on the advantages that potentially exist.

The United States is on occasion called upon to advise or assist countries with less developed school systems in improving and expanding their own educational facilities. Developing nations may not have the financial means of obtaining the extensive facilities considered desirable in the United States. Often recommendations pertaining to small schools may more readily be adapted to the needs of developing countries than can the standards set for large schools in the United States. The applicability of this bulletin to the educational needs of many other nations is further increased because so many of the schools in developing countries are small, particularly at the secondary school level. When an educator comes to the United States from a country which is in the process of building a more adequate system of education, the visitor may be less impressed with the large and elaborately equipped and staffed

schools found in our cities than he is with relatively simple, yet effective, schools of the small towns and rural areas. This publication, it is hoped, will be of material assistance to foreign educators seeking suggestions for further improvement of their national systems of schools. This publication, however, is written for American educators who are working in or are otherwise seeking to advance the science of small school administration. Any other values it may have are of secondary importance.

As this publication is examined and application is made in existing schools, it will be noted that the small school is not thought of as operating under any handicaps or limitations. Procedures used in making educational opportunities available are devised for the small school primarily and operate effectively and efficiently in that setting. The individuals who use this publication will not look over their shoulders, as it were, to see if the plan is related to what urban schools do. They will decide, instead, whether in their judgment the plans presented are promising and efficient procedures for small schools.

CHAPTER I

THE SMALL TWELVE-GRADE SCHOOL IN AMERICAN EDUCATION

Definition of the Small School

The term small twelve-grade school as used in this book assumes that at the elementary level, there is more than one teacher in the school but generally no more than one or two teachers per grade. At the secondary school level there is no lower limit in size but at the upper limit it is presumed that there will be no more than 50 pupils per grade enrolled.

The upper limits just given are not hard and fast. Those who are associated with schools somewhat larger than the size suggested may find the proposals as helpful as suggestions appearing in literature which concentrate on the administration of larger schools. The reason for the suggested upper size limits is to emphasize the fact that techniques developed specifically for the small school are to be stressed in this publication. This is in contrast to the practice sometimes followed of dealing primarily with the problems and features of the large school, yet pointing out that with some adaptation certain of the practices proposed may be used in smaller schools, too.

The reason for not considering the one-room school should be explained. There are many one-room schools and throughout the foreseeable future there will continue to be such schools where terrain or sparsity of population make them necessary. They can be very good schools, as many thousands of Americans who have attended the best of these schools

will testify. They need continued attention and strong leadership. However, they differ so considerably from multi-teacher schools in their organization and operation that it seems inadvisable to include a consideration of them.

Professional Concern for Small Schools in the United States

Small schools have at various times been given considerable attention in educational literature and in research. Through the first twenty years of this century there was a particularly strong interest in rural life in America. In the final years of these first two decades, with the public schools for the first time receiving Federal assistance for training in agriculture and homemaking, there was a surge of interest in making country life a more rewarding and attractive way of living. This meant improving institutions serving rural people, particularly the schools. Great educational leaders like J. E. Butterworth[1] of Cornell University made it clear that the one-room school had put itself in a strait jacket when it sought to imitate the city school with its usually clearly defined grading system. Freed from such an artificial restraint, one-room schools could provide a well-rounded and effective education for the children who attended them. The limitation unnecessarily imposed on one-room schools tended to apply similarly to small high schools, also.

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[1]J. E. Butterworth, "Looking Ahead in Rural Education," Illinois Teacher, 19:377-8, May 1931.

Their administrators looked to the city schools for guidance, not realizing that the schools for which they were responsible could be equally effective if procedures planned especially for them were put into effect.

The advantages of high school education for many families who had not thought seriously of it before came more clearly into focus about the same time that Federal aid became available. By the middle of the second decade increasing numbers of rural youth could drive to the high school of the neighboring town in their Model T Fords. Consolidation became more common as roads were improved and early-model school buses replaced horse-drawn hacks. This improved transportation was a way of bringing to rural people the opportunity for richer living and giving more families the opportunity to enjoy the fruits of the country's economic well-being.

Improvement in the economic status of rural areas lasted for a relatively short time, however. The break in agricultural prices in the early twenties and the economic collapse of the thirties did not, though, seriously diminish the attention given to small schools. This attention now came to be directed more to bringing better education and economic well-being to those who were underprivileged. Many state departments of education, as well as communities and individuals, gave their best thought to the rural school. This lasted through World War II and was briefly carried on after the war ended.

By the late 1940s the emphasis had changed because prosperity which had returned to the rural areas and small towns took on the element of

permanence. Vast programs of highway development got under way, and school buses were being improved constantly. Consolidation was again emphasized but now it was called district reorganization, partly because of the unhappy memories of some of the earlier, improperly-planned consolidations. An acceleration in mechanization of farming which has led to a steadily declining farm population throughout this whole century gave encouragement to the movement toward district reorganization. Many states that had been solicitous of the small school came to direct their attention almost solely to district reorganization. In some cases there was no longer any one in the office of the state department of education to extend help to existing small schools. Boards, patrons, and teachers of one-room and small grade and high schools, formerly lauded and helped in achieving superior work, were now often told they could not provide a fully satisfactory educational program unless they were merged into larger schools. It took a brave teacher, or administrator or board of education not to feel inferior under these circumstances. Sometimes, too, schools whose student bodies dwindled because of declining population contracted for instruction with neighboring districts. This was generally looked upon as a stop-gap measure. Those sending their pupils to other schools for the most part finally dissolved their own districts. While often district reorganization proved to be a sound step, the preoccupation with it did lead many times to the almost total neglect of those small schools whose continued operation was necessary.

Perhaps the most significant support for high schools of a certain minimum size came with the publication of James B. Conant's The American High School Today in which he reported his conclusion that a high school with fewer than one hundred in the graduating class could not maintain an adequate program at justifiable cost. He said:

> I believe such schools (those with graduating classes of less than one hundred students) constitute one of the serious obstacles to good secondary education throughout most of the United States. I believe such schools are not in a position to provide a satisfactory education for any group of their students--the academically talented, the vocationally oriented, or the slow reader. The instructional program is neither sufficiently broad nor sufficiently challenging. A small high school cannot by its very nature offer a comprehensive curriculum. Furthermore, such a school uses uneconomically the time and efforts of administrators, and specialists, the shortage of whom is a serious national problem.[1]

There are, on the other hand, a number of educational leaders who recognize that many high schools cannot be enlarged to the point where they reach the minimum size Conant said was necessary. These schools must, therefore, be improved by techniques not used in urban schools. The Fund for the Advancement of Education has played a considerable part in financing experimentation to discover and apply these methods. Funds were given to the Catskill Area Project with headquarters at the University Teacher's College in Oneonta, New York and a little later to the Western States Small Schools Project centered in the several cooperating state departments of education. Another program carried

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[1]James B. Conant, The American High School Today, New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1959, p. 77.

on with some foundation support was the Texas Small Schools Project which was administered by the State of Texas Education Agency (the State Department of Education) at Austin. The University of Nebraska in 1958 received a small grant from the Fund for the Advancement of Education which enabled it to hold a national conference on small schools. Innovators and experimenters from twelve states attended. A much larger grant was given to Nebraska during the years 1956-59 for experimentation in the use of television and independent study by correspondence together to upgrade instruction and broaden offerings in small high schools. Such financial and related professional leadership has led to helpful research and a considerable body of literature some of which will be referred to in subsequent chapters.

All of the projects just referred to--the Catskill Area Program, the Western States Small Schools Project, the work with small schools carried on by the Texas Education Agency, the Nebraska plan for combining independent study and educational television--have begun with the premise that what is an effective procedure in large schools is not necessarily effective in small schools. Such schools must examine widely used procedures in school organization and teaching methods and generally accepted building design and when these do not seem to serve the best interests of small schools, develop procedures and designs that do.

The objectives of education are very similar, if not identical, regardless of the size of the school. The ways by which these objectives

are attained effectively may be so different, however, that there is really a science of administration of small schools separate and distinct from large school administration.

The unique elements in small school administration sometimes do not seem to stay in focus as one would expect them to do. Perhaps this failure is due to the fact that administrators usually do not think of the small school system as the place where their life work will be carried on. The largest financial rewards and greatest professional recognition are to be found in the administration of large schools. Relatively few attain this but they think primarily of that as the objective to be sought for. It is those that "arrive" who are considered the educational leaders. What they say or write is given the greater weight. They probably have never fully grasped, though, the realization that there is a whole area of administration that may have been given little consideration. In fact, this area may not have been placed before them as graduate students. Many of their professors suffer from the same failure to understand as their students do. Professional books that are written and sell best give only passing attention to small schools and such attention as is given shows lack of full understanding. The number of our educational leaders who teach graduate courses in the administration of small schools is limited. But we must not fail the students who attend our small elementary and high schools. They deserve no less than those in our large schools.

To reinforce by illustration the uniqueness of the procedures used in the administration of small schools, several examples may be presented. Considered in Chapter IV is the utilization of multiple classes. That is not a method identified with large schools. It is presently found in a few small high schools, though, and should be widely adopted. By its use the curriculum of the small school may be expanded materially. Independent study by correspondence is also discussed. The large high school can make use of this method of teaching but it rarely does. Its use in the small high school is vital because by means of it all limitations in the high school program may be removed and restrictions because of limited faculty qualifications will disappear.

Chapter XI translates the concept of teaching methods planned specifically for small high schools into appropriate school plant design. Buildings are typically erected for a high degree of specialization in use. With fewer teachers there are fewer rooms and there should be greater adaptability in room use. The elementary grades make use of the school's gymnasium-auditorium. The shop, perhaps no more than a single room, serves the whole school as well as the community. But more of that in Chapter XI.

Numbers of Small High Schools in the United States

From statistics compiled by the United States Office of Education for 1951-52, 1958-59, and 1960-61 the trend in high school size and the numbers of high schools for that period may be noted. Table I provides

figures for the smaller high schools at that time. The basis for reporting in the later 1960s is so different that the figures are not comparable with earlier statistics.

TABLE I

Number of Small and Medium-Size Public High Schools 1951-52, 1958-59, and 1960-61[1]

Type of High School	1951-52 Enrollment		1958-59 Enrollment		1960-61 Enrollment	
	1-199	200-499	1-199	200-499	1-199	200-499
Four-year	7837	1567	3631	2014	3423	1804
Junior	926	886	1249	1284	1060	1002
Senior	160	568	123	223	100	352
Junior-Senior	4043	3138	4338	5083	3847	3543
All		6159				6701

The number of high schools with 200-499 pupils was 6159 in 1951-52 and 6701 in 1960-61, an increase during the nine-year period of 542. Almost all of this increase occurred in the six-year high schools. Of the separated senior high schools there was a decline from 568 to 352 in the 200-499 category during the nine years.

Among the high schools with enrollments up to 199 there was an increase only in the number of junior high schools and that was from

[1]Figures obtained from the U.S. Office of Education Biennial Survey of Education for 1951-52, Statistics of Education in the United States, 1958-59 series and subject offerings and enrollments in public secondary schools 1960-61.

926 to 1960. The overall decline in the number of high schools with enrollments of 199 or less was 4536 or 28 percent. Although the number of the smallest category of high schools is still declining, they may still be as many as one third of the operating high schools in the United States.

Trends in Community Size

An analysis of the 1960 census figures showed that the dividing point in community size with respect to loss or gain in population was approximately 2000 nationally. In Nebraska there was a reversal in this trend during the 1960s. The 1970 census showed that, on the whole, communities of less than 2000 also showed growth. There are several possible reasons for this, such as the development of suburban communities, the tendency of older people to retire to small communities, and the experience with states such as California that have attracted so many with the hope of employment. Some growth, though, comes with industrialization. The trends during the next few years will show how permanent the growth of small communities is and the affect on pupil attendance. A population decline in smaller communities almost inevitably makes the community's schools smaller, too. A high school with fifty or more pupils per grade may find itself in a few years with forty or less in each grade. The result is that even though high school size has been increased quite generally through district reorganization there are high schools which are joining the ranks of small schools because of population decline in the community they serve.

A number of communities are affected by declines in population not related to farming, because of employment changes in nonagricultural activities. Automation of mining operations means fewer miners and automation of small industry may result in reduced factory employment. It is evident, then, that there are trends and counter trends in employment and in population which have significant influence on the total picture.

Recent figures reveal that the population of the United States is presently increasing at the rate of about one per cent per year. This growth and the migration of people from rural areas to larger population centers has been changing communities of modest size into cities and cities into metropolitan areas. There still remain, though, or are coming into existence small schools that cannot, without great cost to the community and disadvantage to the pupils, be enlarged to the point where they attain the size range referred to by Conant as minimal for effective work. The young people who attend these schools are individuals with potentialities and with needs and desires like those in any other community. We must not turn our backs on them. If there are ways of making the schools they attend better, and this book hopefully will demonstrate that this can be done at reasonable cost, such must be accomplished. America today has the human and material resources needed to do just that. The author is confident that what is required will be achieved as interest is aroused.

Are Small High Schools Basically Less Satisfactory?

While the objective of the writer is primarily to identify, describe and apply administrative and teaching techniques which are intended especially for small schools as defined on page ___, it is of interest to note the lack of evidence as to inferiority of small schools as they now are. This is probably a surprise to those who so often have been reading or hearing that small schools must be eliminated so that boys and girls may have the opportunity to receive an adequate education.

If small high schools are inferior one would expect that pupil achievement or subsequent attainment in college would yield conclusive evidence. But this presumably inferior achievement is not found when studies are made.

Small high schools may cost more per pupil than large schools but that is sometimes due to the fact that these small schools utilize administrative and teaching methods developed for large schools. These methods are not necessarily efficient when used in situations for which they are not intended.

One major study concerned with pupil participation in school activities and in community life as related to school size has been reported by Barker and others[1]. The authors studied pupils in high schools varying in enrollment from 35 to 2287, with the most thorough studies comparing high school juniors in four schools of from 61 to

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[1] Roger C. Barker and others, Big School-Small School, Midwest Psychological Field Station; Lawrence, University of Kansas 1962. Later published by Stanford University Press.

151 students each with juniors in the large high school having a total enrollment in four grades of 2287. The schools were all located in eastern Kansas within a relatively homogeneous economic, cultural and political region. All the schools met the standards of the same state authority. The principal findings were these:

1. The proportion of students who participated in district dramatic, journalistic, student government, and music festivals and competitions reached a peak in high schools with enrollments between 61 and 151. The proportion of participants was 3 to 20 times as great in the small schools as in the largest school. The average number of extra-curricular activities and kinds of activities in which students engaged during their 4-year high school careers was twice as great in the small as in the large schools.

2. A much larger proportion of the small school students held central positions of importance and responsibility in the behavior settings they entered, and they occupied these central positions in more varieties of settings than the students of the large school. The number of settings in which students participated varied more among students of the large school than of the small schools.

3. Juniors from the small schools reported more satisfaction relating to the development of competence, to being challenged, to engaging in important actions, to being involved in group activities and to achieving moral cultural values; while large school juniors reported more satisfaction dealing with vicarious enjoyment, with large entity affiliation, with learning about their school's persons and affairs, and with gaining "points" via participation.

4. Part-time and summer employment in business and professional behavior settings, and responsible participation in church and out-of-school social organizations are widely believed to have value. These community activities were more frequent for the small school-small town adolescents than for the large school-city adolescents. In these respects, the differences were clearer for the boys than for the girls. In general, the schools and communities were harmonious; the small communities, like the small schools, provided positions of functional importance for adolescents more frequently, and the cities, like the large schools, provided such positions less frequently. The data provide

no evidence that the urban environments of the large schools compensated by means of their greater resources and facilities for the relatively meager functional importance of students within their large schools.

5. In the two instances studied where students were removed from small communities and transported to a central, district school, there was some evidence that participation in both community settings and voluntary school settings was lower than in the case of students attending small schools in small communities. The high school adolescents of the small communities made functionally important contributions to their towns in behavior settings beyond the borders of the schools; and these settings, in turn, supplemented the school settings.

6. In spite of the greater numbers and varieties of educational behavior settings in the large schools, the available evidence indicates that, as was true with the class settings, the large school students participated in fewer classes and varieties of classes than the small school students. The problem of specialization was investigated in the case of the single subject matter-music, with the finding that musical education and experience were more widely distributed among the small school than the large school students, but there were more musical specialists among the large school students.

Barker and his colleagues, in pondering the findings which have just been reported, made these observations:

1. Although there has long been evidence from industrial psychology that the larger and more bureaucratically efficient the organization the greater the degradation of the individual, this knowledge has had little influence upon schools, and the widespread concern for the organization child. On the contrary, the enlargement of schools has often been accepted not as an unfortunate necessity, but as a welcome educational improvement. This evaluation is usually based upon the assumption of a direct coupling between the properties of schools and the experiences and behavior of its children, e.g., the assumption that a rich curriculum means rich experiences for students, or that a multiform program of activities means strong individual involvement. This simplex view so common in education has been long passed in the physical and biological sciences. No one would seriously argue that

because one bridge is stronger than another, the individual beams of which it is constructed must also be stronger.

2. These investigations show that one attribute of school enrolment, is causally related to the behavior and experiences of the students who compose the school, but that the connections are not direct and simple; the couplings are indirect, complex, sometimes paradoxical, but nonetheless strongly coercive. One faulty link in the argument from schools to students is the confusion of facilities with experiences. Good facilities provide good experiences only if they are used. The educational process is a subtle and delicate one about which we know little; but it surely thrives upon participation, enthusiasm and responsibility. Without participation, education cannot occur, however excellent the arrangements may be. All of our findings reveal a negative relation between school size and individual student participation. To the degree that this is true it means that when better facilities are purchased at the expense of larger size they are discounted by lower participation by students. Good facilities, varied course offerings and a diversity of activities doubtless have educational values. However, our findings show that instructional variety (academic scope) enlarges very slowly with growth in size; schools differing in enrolment by 100 per cent, had only a 17 per cent median difference in instructional variety. Increasing school size would appear to be a relatively ineffective means of achieving richness and variety.

The authors go on to say that a basic problem for the future is to investigate the degree to which the relations that have been described between school size, school settings, and student participation are inevitable. It may be easier to bring specialized and varied behavior settings to small schools than to raise the level of individual participation in the large schools. Furthermore, the current method of broadening educational offerings by moving hundreds of bodies to one central spot may be both unnecessary and old-fashioned.

As Barker and his collaborators point out, schools are specialized environments, established and manipulated in order to produce certain educational opportunities and effects. We are in need of more investigations, employing new concepts and methods, in order to determine the nature and consequences of these environments. It must be said, though, that so far as can be ascertained, large size is not a positive factor in achieving excellence. A large school impresses the observer but only superficially. In examining the basics it seems that smallness can be an asset. As a principal reported several years after assuming the administration of a large high school, "For the upper fifteen percent of the pupils this school is fine but for the other eighty-five percent it is not as good as a small school."

CHAPTER II

THE SMALL 12-GRADE SCHOOL AND ITS COMMUNITY

When the family and the simple community that were part of the youth's life provided the only schooling he received education was informal in its impact and uneven in the results attained. Later, education became increasingly formalized and more responsibility for instruction was given to specialists. This development tended to result in separation from the life of the on-going community and some separation from the home, as well. Education came to be looked upon as largely preliminary to community participation. There is now a trend toward the more wholesome and realistic view that the four walls of a school should never cut a child off from the impact the rest of the community has on him.

It behooves the school to look upon the community as an additional resource, actually as a reservoir of resources. Some years ago Olsen in his book School and Community[1] pointed out that if the school is to be related meaningfully to its community, close contacts must be maintained through use of community materials, resource people, field trips, surveys, school camping, work experience and community service.

The most obvious demonstration of relatedness of school and community is that the school in the community educates the children of

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[1] Edward G. Olsen, School and Community, New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1954, p. 1.

those who live there. That situation alone brings the school and community into a close relationship. Other factors found in the United States but less evident in most other countries further illustrate the school-community tie. First of all, a locally elected or appointed board of education has a large share in determining educational policies beyond the minimum required by the state or by accrediting agencies. These responsibilities of the local board have a related influence in that with local control the school's program may readily be tied in with the activities and the aspirations of the particular community. In nations where local control is minimal the goals of the school are focused more on national objectives.

Another influence of importance is the source of the school's financial support. In practically every state, part of the support comes from local sources, in some 80 percent or more while in others much less. These funds, raised locally, defray a share of the costs of both housing and current operating expenses. The quality and nature of the school program offered is therefore influenced both by the policies established by the local board and by the financial support derived from local taxes.

Utilizing Community Resources in the Educational Program

An important advantage of the considerable local control exercised on schools is the use that can more readily be made of community resources such as local history, mineral deposits near at hand, and community talent for the improvement of the educational program.

This is a departure from the once commonly held idea that an adequate education can only be given by relying on material and personnel that belong to or are a part of the school proper. As most of us know, the school building and the grounds on which the school plant is located do not and cannot contain all that is needed.

A good beginning has been made. In some schools, though, that have vocational education the policy of using community resources for pupils not studying a vocation is sketchily practiced. In schools that do not have vocational education programs the policy of limiting formal education to what can be offered in the school itself is accepted too often. For most schools the full utilization of community resources is something that remains still to be achieved. It is intended that this chapter shall provide suggestions so specific that any school will see its way clear to making extensive use of such resources. Attention will be given first to work experience in the community. Following that there will be a discussion of other procedures that provide for utilization of facilities which are not a part of the school proper.

One of the writers had a vivid experience several years ago which shows how far short of its potential the reach of a school may be. He was visiting a small high school maintained by a community at the edge of a beautiful little valley with a stream no more than a half mile away that maintained a year-round flow. The school was on a slope at the edge of the town near the valley where the whole panorama was clearly in view. A teacher was instructing a class in biology as the visitor entered the room. As she looked up the visitor inquired, "How is your

work going?" The class members with their textbooks before them, but little else available, looked up, too. The teacher replied almost plaintively, "All right, I guess, but I don't have much to teach with." She was no doubt referring to the lack of a well-equipped laboratory such as she had known in college and the absence of the many animal and plant specimens, often from distant places, with which biology rooms are presumably furnished. As this answer came the visitor involuntarily looked beyond to the pastures with their herds, to the cultivated land, to the vegetable and the flower gardens, to the houses and barns, and to the stream alive with animal life and its banks lined with trees, bushes, and annual plants. He wondered silently if the boys and girls receiving their education in this setting so rich in resources would leave their school years behind them still blind to the fullness of nature all about,not even knowing the names of plants and trees in their own locale. Their eyes probably were not opened to the life on every hand, nor are the eyes of many others opened sufficiently to their environment. Many in the past, happily nowhere near as many today as was once true, could not leave the building for a field trip unless permission, often difficult to obtain, had been secured from the supervisor. But we are considering here schools that do wish to make the most effective use possible of the resources their communities can provide.

Work Experiences

People generally, professional educators no less than others, place a high value on the opportunity for organized productive work. It should be part of the experience of every boy and girl before he finishes high

school. When the settlement of the West was under way, when the nation was still largely rural, or on the several occasions when the country was at war the demand for the services of young people has been such that they have all had work. In the 1930s though, and to an unfortunate extent in the 1970s the opportunities for productive remunerative work for the high school student are not sufficiently extensive. The very persistant boy or girl, particularly if he or she has needed skills, can usually step into a job without much difficulty. This, though, does not mean that opportunities for work are adequate. It only proves that the work for young people goes to those who best demonstrate the qualities sought by employers or possibly have helpful contacts through parents or friends.

But the purpose of the author is not to discuss youth employment generally, but rather the place it should have in smaller communities as a part of the total educational program of the boys and girls in high school.

Values of Work Experience

Work experience has been defined as a means and method of education having unique values in which the learner produces useful goods and services through participation in socially desirable work activities under normal conditions.

There are at least three very important reasons for a work experience program in the school, whether it be large or small. First, is the fact that it completes the learning process. There is no fully satisfactory substitute for schooling which, in part, includes learning by doing.

Much is achieved by class presentation, by reading, and by the use of visual aids but the whole process is often clinched by the experiencing of that which is being learned.

A significant value of work experience is the appreciation that it provides of the importance and value of actual labor, whether it be with his hands or hand or both, and earning a wage. Everyone should have some practice in working with his hands. For boys and girls who will be in the so-called white-collar occupations this will bring an appreciation of those who do manual labor while at the same time developing skills and interests that can be put to good use in following some avocational interest or in rendering useful service about the home. For those who will not be in white-collar occupations, work done during the school years may be part of their actual vocational preparation. Appreciation of the value and importance of work will be an important by-product.

The third reason why a work experience program is essential is that it is the only effective way to provide a constant flow of young citizens who have become aware of employment opportunities and who have made themselves ready to take their places as productive members of society. Because they will, on the whole, be better trained than their elders, their standard of living will in all likelihood be higher. Some will not remain in the locality where they receive their education. They will be ready to enter employment wherever they go.

Types of Work Experience

A school and community that have a well-developed work-experience program will provide at least three types of activities: (1) Unpaid school

and community services, (2) practice in work skills acquired under the direction of an employer, either with or without financial remuneration, and (3) other out-of-school work that has educational value.

As for unpaid school and community service, any task to be performed in the school, the town or the rural area nearby is considered a proper activity for youth in school. Helping with soil conservation and carrying on park projects are only two of the services that may be performed to promote the welfare of the community. Anyone who observes or reads about what pioneering schools are doing cannot help being encouraged by the opportunities for invaluable service that are to be found in any school and community. A more effective school, a more prosperous community, and a group of youth better prepared for useful living will result from adopting such a pattern of education.

Practice in Work Skills Acquired Under Employers

In the school and community service program the school is really the employer and the faculty members the supervisors. Work skills may also be learned on the job under the supervision of employers in the community. With such a plan the school still maintains full responsibility for integrating this phase of education with the rest of the pupil program and it also provides general oversight of the boy or girl on the job. Moreover, it is in the school, as a rule, that the theory or background information regarding the job is learned. Thus the school still remains very much in the picture.

An illustration will show how a work-experience program of this type operates. Let us suppose an upper-class boy wishes to become

an auto mechanic. He will spend perhaps half his time at a local garage and the rest of the day at the high school taking English, social studies, and probably mathematics or science. He will also study text materials, with some written activities, relating to the phases of mechanics in which he is gaining skill at a garage.

Up to two units of credit may be given the student yearly in the junior and in the senior year for work experience successfully completed. This leaves only half-time for credit to be earned each semester in the regular school program. Since it is possible that this boy may have to miss one or more of the regularly organized school classes he needs, assuming they are scheduled during the half day he is gone, that work may have to be provided on an individualized basis. In communities that provide terminal education at the junior college level the boy or girl engaged in an extensive program of work experience may take more of the regularly organized classes by continuing to attend school part-time through the thirteenth or fourteenth year rather than ending with the twelfth.

It may be possible to provide out-of-school work experience after school or on Saturdays. The work day in garages extends to 5:00 p.m. or later. Saturday may also be included. If a student worked from 2:30 to 5:00 each day and for four hours on Saturday he would be spending more than 15 hours weekly on the job. This is almost as much time as he would put in by working half the school day, Monday through Friday. If this plan is followed he may be able to carry his regular school subjects without any readjustment of schedule.

While the boy is working under the supervision of the garageman in his shop he acquires skills through actual doing. All the time the school is planning with the boy and the operator of the garage as to how this training and experience may be made or kept valuable. Care must be taken that the boy is not required to do the same thing over and over indefinitely just because he knows the particular skill involved or because the garage owner does not care to take the time to help the boy learn additional and/or more difficult skills.

The school, the garage staff, and the boy also cooperate in evaluating what has been done and in determining what essential elements remain to be learned. There are as many opportunities to gain work experience in a community under employers as there are types of work being done by or under the direction of men and women who would be willing to supervise youth in the same type of work. Until one catalogs these activities one cannot judge accurately how many there are. There are numerous aspects of farming and ranching, there is probably welding, secretarial work, employment in service stations, drug stores, grocery stores, lumber yards, print shops, banks and factories, to mention only a few. As these opportunities for training are made available, the school adds to both the human resources and the physical facilities available for education. The community could never hope to have in the school proper the shop, merchandising, manufacturing, office and other facilities that the community as a whole can probably provide.

A program of part-time employment for students requires detailed planning and oversight if it is to operate successfully. There is the problem of getting school and community support for a method of education to which many are not accustomed. A modest beginning which leads to successful results will do more than anything else to bring approval for a more comprehensive undertaking.

As has already been pointed out, exploitation enters into the picture as a possible problem. Some employers are willing to take youngsters but require too much work from them or do not provide them with an adequate variety of learning experiences. For instance, the grocer may not do much more than have the youngster clean the store and restock the shelves, the farmer may do no more than teach the youngster how to run a tractor and keep him at this activity day after day and week after week.

There are legal aspects, too. Sometimes the addition of more persons to the payroll places the employer in the position where he must be responsible for unemployment compensation insurance. The carrying of accident insurance may be a problem, also. These possibilities must be checked.

There is the problem of operating successfully in a small community without the assistance of an expert school coordinator, and with only one or at the most a half dozen boys and girls engaged in a particular type of work away from school. It is suggested that the administrator or one of the high school faculty reserve time to serve as local coordinator even though not more than one period a day can be spent on that

assignment. For assistance in working out the technical details, a supervisor should be available either from the state department of vocational education or from a larger school system in the region. This person can serve several communities and still carry on other duties for the state department or city school. During the part of the day the pupils engaged in this program are in school they will, through the use of individualized materials, acquire the related training for the work they are doing. This is the method that must probably be used because there will not be enough pupils interested in any one occupation to justify conducting a class.

The difficulties enumerated are real but not so serious as to be insurmountable. Work experience gained under the direction of employers and workers in the community is too important both to the individual pupil and to the community to justify giving it up for any reason.

Other Out-of-School Work Experiences That Have Educational Value

The school should not attempt to supervise or control every type of work a boy or girl may do. In fact, it could not do that if it wished. It should, though, be aware of most activities carried on and give them their appropriate place in the total educational program. A girl may have lost her mother and be keeping a home for her father and younger brothers and sisters. A business-minded boy may have built up a successful paper route and be saving money to go to college. In all likelihood, neither of these young people need more work. They are learning under strenuous and realistic circumstances. These are only

random illustrations of intensive and valuable work done by many youth at home or in some job they have obtained or some position they have made for themselves.

Then there are others who are acquiring work skills and understandings through educational but non-school agencies. In small communities and rural areas it is sometimes the 4-H club program. The two principal broad classifications of 4-H clubs are Agriculture and Home Economics. The agriculture clubs often are concerned with animal husbandry, farm forestry, health, fix-it, horticulture, and poultry. The home economics clubs are divided into clothing, food preparation, food preservation, homemaking, and school lunch. Within each subdivision the girl or boy chooses the specific type of club activity in which she or he wishes to participate. For instance, there are baby beef, beef breeding, stock-feeder, purebred pig, litter, market hog, lamb, ewe and lamb, western lamb, and horse and mule clubs under the general title of animal husbandry.

Although clubs for unmarried young men and women out of school are less numerous than for in-school youth, the place they occupy is growing. Naturally, there is a considerable emphasis on social activities. Over-all enrollment in 4-H activities has steadily increased. For example, latest figures showed nearly 43,000 active members in Nebraska, a gradual but steady growth for 25 years or more. It is clear that 4-H activities have a significant appeal.

Other Ways of Utilizing Community Resources

Attention has been given to the utilization of community resources

in providing meaningful work experiences for youth. The human, institutional, and natural resources of the community can be drawn upon in other ways, too: (1) local citizens can be brought in on a volunteer basis to provide certain information or skills in the school; (2) teacher aides will be local people; (3) a study of the community and of its natural environment will vitalize learning and promote more intelligent membership in community life; (4) community institutions other than the school have much to contribute; and (5) opportunities for joint participation by youth and adults in community activities provide preparation for effective citizenship.

Use of Local Citizens in the School Program

Perhaps beginning with the child's first enrollment, the school should maintain an up-to-date record of what the parents can contribute to the school program through assisting with specialized units, or by adding to information regarding units or subjects being studied. Children in the early grades tend to be especially proud of such participation--of mother or father in the school. But that should be only a beginning. People who have traveled in various parts of the world have brought back pictures, mementos, and experiences that can be used to vitalize phases of history and geography for many years to come. Farmers and homemakers can teach certain skills, relating to the farm or the home itself better than or at least as well as the teachers themselves. The county judge can give an insight into justice and court procedure better than anyone else in the community. A family may have priceless relics of

pioneer days that some member would be willing to bring to the school and describe. These are but a few of scores of possibilities. Educators thoroughly believe in supplementary learning aids. They use films, maps, diagrams, and models, but often they overlook local resources fully as effective or even more so.

Trump refers to the individuals we have just been discussing as consultants. In his Images of the Future he says:

> Community Consultants will be members of the community who will be used in specific assignments where they are better qualified than any available teacher. For example, a physician might answer questions on puberty, a world traveler on geography, or an atomic scientist on peacetime uses of nuclear energy. Such persons will usually volunteer their services. On occasion it may be desirable to employ an outstanding person for a number of appearances on a systematic basis. In this case the consultant would receive payment. Their contributions ordinarily will be taped, filmed, or recorded in some way for future use. These specialists in their fields will be employed from lists developed by the schools to supplement the services of the professional staff.[1]

Value of a Study of the Local Community and Its Natural Environment

Most obvious, perhaps, is the possibility of utilizing the natural environment to make the sciences meaningful, yet that opportunity is frequently neglected. To those who studied under the teachers of biology who overlooked the environment near at hand, the subject will always be a bookish thing with little relation to nature. Interest in it is apt to die with the closing of the school year instead of flowering into a mature life-long series of meaningful experiences.

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[1] Images of the Future, National Association of Secondary School Principals; Washington, D.C.: 1967 (out of print).

But there is more than the natural environment to study. There is the community itself. An outline will show how broad the scope of this study may be:

I. The Community

A. General Setting and Business Activity

1. Location
2. Population
3. Chief industries
4. Business activities
5. Map showing the incorporated area of town
6. The school district

B. The Trade Area

1. Extent
2. Nature

II. Physical Setting

A. Topography

B. Soil

1. Original condition
2. Present condition
3. Drainage
4. Rainfall
5. Temperature

III. History

IV. Population

V. Farms

A. General Condition

B. Products

VI. Finance and Thrift

VII. Transportation

VIII. Communication

A. Telephones

B. Radios and Television

C. Volume of Mail

IX. Occupations

A. Professions

1. Doctors
2. Lawyers
3. Teachers
4. Nurses
5. Ministers
6. Other Professions

B. Trades

1. Barbers
2. Carpenters
3. Plumbers
4. Bricklayers
5. Others

C. Farmers

D. Laborers

X. Distribution of Wealth

A. Income, Wages, and Per Capita Wealth

B. Rental Values

C. Unemployment

XI. Standard of Living

A. Housing

1. Town, types and condition
2. Country, types and condition
3. Hotels and motels
4. Blocks of hard surfacing

B. Conveniences

1. Bathrooms
2. Electricity
3. Telephones, radios, television
4. Automobiles per capita

XII. Health

A. Health Regulations

B. Water Supply

C. Sewage Disposal

XIII. Education

A. Schools

1. Town and country
2. Attendance
3. Curriculum
4. Costs
5. Graduates
   (a) remain in community
   (b) gone to college

B. Library

1. Books available
2. Circulation records

C. Lectures and Other Facilities

XIV. Churches

A. Number and Kinds

B. Membership and Attendance

C. Activities

XV. Government and Politics

A. Mayor and Council

B. Taxation

C. Political Alignment

XVI. Recreation

A. Public

B. Commercial

C. Recreational clubs and home recreation

XVII. Other Human and Physical Community Resources

A. Human

B. Physical

Space here available does not permit a discussion of the topics just given. To illustrate the breadth of the possibilities in each, let us refer to the method of approach and development possible with respect to history of the community (III in the outline just given.).

The history of a community offers an opportunity to gain appreciation as well as knowledge. Pupils are interested in facts about the settlement and growth of the community, about the early settlers and their experiences, and about outstanding events and individuals. Teachers may be surprised by the amount of information that can be secured.

One community which reached its 100th birthday seems to have done that effectively. Members of the community can be asked to contribute pictures they have of early events and customs. Individuals will be glad to come to school and tell the students about the community's early history. Interviews will also provide much information. These should be taped and filed for future use. Other sources will be newspaper files, and city, county, school and church records. These, too, should be available on tape.

The time of the erection of the first school house and of other important buildings are of interest. A study of types of services provided now and formerly, of recreation, and of living practices, past and present, will show trends in the life of the community. Facts regarding historic spots, parks, and monuments should be included.

The study of a community is not made for the benefit of students only. The history of the community and of its builders should be known to adults as well as to youth. The development of a scrapbook and reproduction of many copies by Xerox or other methods, most of them for distribution and a few for a permanent record, would be helpful in reaching such a wide audience. As a climaxing event the school could prepare an exhibit of newspapers, pictures, household utensils, furniture, clothing, farm machinery, and other materials that will give a vivid interpretation of the history of the community. A photograph of the exhibit should be taken and placed in the scrapbook along with other items. A dramatization of the history of the community in the form of a pageant is always well received.

To merely say to teachers, "Use community resources," is apt to leave them unimpressed and without helpful direction. It is suggested instead, that each staff member check the community for those resources that will help most in his particular field. This will localize the plan and enable everyone to get a more concrete picture of what can be done.

Possible Contributions of Community Institutions Other Than the School

We often speak of the education and guidance of children as being the responsibility of the church, home, and school. Joint planning with parents is done occasionally but collaboration with churches in the case of puplic schools is much less common. A great deal would be gained by these agencies jointly discussing objectives, ways and means, and respective responsibilities.

There are other community institutions and individuals, too, that play important educational roles. There are organizations like Boy and Girl Scouts; private teachers of art, music and dancing; movies, radio and television; libraries, magazine counters with their unfortunately predominant accent on worthless reading matter and sometimes unwholesome advertising; pool halls and gangs. The school, it it is to achieve what people hope for it, must know what is happening to boys and girls for good or ill and so far as is within its power, with the home and church as allies, counteract or modify those that are bad or unwholesome. In the broader sense, the community is one big school. Parts of it may undo the useful service that other parts provide.

Joint Participation of Youth and Adults

Work experience, discussed earlier in this chapter, provides many opportunities for youth and adults to cooperate constructively. There are many other possible occasions that should be capitalized on, such as participation of young and old in chorus, town band or orchestra, in helping serve church or school dinners, in community planning, development of school policies or of church policies. Boys and girls do not suddenly become adults. They acquire maturity gradually. The more they can participate with adults as they grow toward manhood and womanhood, the more effectively they will assume their adult responsibilities.

Those who have thought through the implications and the possibilities of the use of community resources, find it hard to understand why educators have gone beyond the school as little as they have in planning

for the education of boys and girls. The tendency of people to think of education and school as being synonymous is part of the explanation. The greater ingenuity required when the whole community is used is another reason. Regardless, though, of what has been done in the past and why, it is important that educational institutions delay no longer in working toward that essential characteristic of a community school--the use of all community resources.

CHAPTER III

THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

Within the limitations set in Chapter I--not more than two rooms to a grade, and as few as two rooms in the whole elementary school--the elementary school is here classified as small. Both the elementary and the high school will often be housed in one building; in fact, it is a strong possibility. However, if the elementary school is administered by its own board, that school will probably be in a separate plant, housing pupils that would otherwise be in several smaller elementary schools. This is less common today than it was some years ago, though because the six-year elementary school is likely to have an enrollment similar in size to that of the high school. Bus transportation is generally available for the pupils from kindergarten through grade twelve alike on the same route. A building which houses all the grades through high school is probably the rule, therefore, rather than the exception.

Since the entire school is of one piece in a number of ways, the recommendations that will be made do not relate to the elementary school alone as a rule. While this chapter is concerned more with kindergarten through grade six than the high school it would be unrealistic to pretend a separation that does not actually exist. To illustrate, recommendations regarding the relationships of the school and the family for elementary school pupils are relevant through the high school years. The relationships should, in fact, begin before the child reaches kindergarten and they should continue on an increasingly meaningful basis

through the school years. It is fortunate that an unbroken relationship can exist so often. In that way the school and the community become helpful partners during the child's growing-up years. It is advantageous if the thread is not broken during that time. Teachers and administrators are not ancillary agents who only now and then render a useful role where the family is also involved. To realize best results the school and the home work together closely from the period before formal schooling begins and then on through the secondary years.

The Elementary Pupil and His Home

Educators realize that the elementary child and his home may be much the same whether the school is large or small. At times, though, there is difficulty in keeping meaningful contact with homes in urban centers. Mothers in areas of low income, at least, are often employed outside the home. In the crowded conditions so common in the ghettos the children are more often from broken homes than is the case in small schools, and even the one parent who is responsible may work at hours that do not permit satisfactory home visits.

The child spends his best waking hours and his formative years in school because that is the only practical way of bringing society's great store of knowledge and skill to the child. This does not mean that the school takes over. It is, or should be, the constant ally of the home. In the United States it is usually a lay board of education that represents the whole community and society as a whole in helping assure that common interests are not overlooked. The parents, having deep personal concern for their boy or girl are involved at all decision levels.

The school balances the professional skills of the teacher and administrator with the desires and insights of the parents and with the goals of society in providing the school. This can most readily be made a reality in the community school in which parents and school are in close and continuing contact. The total result of such a parent-school relationship is a community-school relationship which in the typical situation is so important to the effectiveness of the educational agency. A community that does not cooperate with its school is clearly less effective than if there is active rapport.

The Library and Media Center

A large elementary school can point to the library or media center that the various teachers use and which provides important resource materials needed in teaching. There is, in fact, a trend toward making the media center a central point of the school's instructional program.

In the small elementary school the sources of library materials are varied. Suitable reading materials can be obtained but they may come in part from a state or county lending library which provides books currently needed and then replaces them within a definite period. Books used repeatedly will so far as possible be owned by the school. Those related to a particular topic can be obtained on a loan basis at the time needed if arrangements are made in ample time. The interest of children is perhaps more readily stimulated or kept alive if books on hand are obtained as they are needed.

A materials center is much more than a library of books and magazines, of course. It includes all materials that can supplement the

regular classroom and laboratory work. Films and projection equipment are a very important part of the center. Both may be either owned or rented, although film is much more readily obtained through rental, as a rule. Equipment is subject to damage or need for adjustment in proportion to the distance it is moved and the precautions taken in moving it. The principal difference between the large and the small school is the amount of audio-visual material locally owned. The alert school that obtains its teaching material as needed may have more appropriate choices. The necessary proviso is that arrangements for loan be made far enough in advance to facilitate having it at the time it will be most helpful.

In conclusion, the materials center for the small elementary school is likely to depend to a greater extent than in the large school on materials that are not owned but obtained on loan from the available sources. The small school, by drawing on these sources, can be just as effective as the large school and probably at no greater cost per pupil.

Instructional Procedures

The small elementary school faculty has the same opportunities and challenges as teachers in the large elementary school. Team teaching or the non-graded method are possible with interested and competent teachers, whatever the size of the school. The purpose of team teaching is to bring about a degree of specialization in teaching. The individual who is principal or head teacher can work out a schedule for two or three rooms just as would be done in the large elementary school. Each teacher has particular teaching responsibilities.

The ungraded room is perhaps more readily obtained in the small than in the large school. When teachers provide the instruction appropriate to pupils' levels of achievement, either above or below the typical, the room is ungraded. Both children who are not challenged with work at their level of comprehension or those who are hopelessly lost because the tasks they are assigned are beyond their capacities are underachievers. If they are working near their own capacity they will be chalking up gains. Whether they are put in a more advanced grade in September is not so important except for a possible psychological impact on the pupils. They are better able to cope with the new tasks they will face than if the preceding year had been spent in a rigidly graded inflexible program.

The elementary school in which school and community have close rapport, and this can certainly be achieved in the small school, is likely to have available to it the educational resources of that community. Those resources are much richer than may appear at first. The modern school is not on an island surrounded by a moat. It is a special institution in and a part of the community. Sharp grading by age, lack of acquaintance with nature and with the means of livelihood of the community simply do not exist or at least need not.

Housing the Elementary School

The fact that the small elementary school is often in a plant that houses the high school also has been pointed out. Specialization of buildings usually results from planning the elementary school to house a smaller number of pupils than the high school and keeping the pupils

nearer home. In the case of the small school those reasons are not so likely to be pertinent. Bus transportation for those not living near the school plant is provided. Elementary and high school pupils have the same means of transportation. School hours can be the same. The kindergarten hours of play or recess may be different and there are regular periods for rest. This means that pupils of all ages can come and leave at the same time. When there are activities which require later or earlier than normal school hours, one or more buses can make special trips, for example to early music classes or for athletic practice after school. Some smaller schools restrict pupils with special needs to regular hours. The small elementary school needs housing somewhat less specialized but otherwise very similar to the large school.

Kindergarten

Kindergartens today are not large school phenomena alone nor are they planned primarily to accommodate working mothers. They are firmly a part of early school life. Tax funds are used as a rule. Children simply begin their school life a year earlier than when regular schooling starts with the first grade. The only element that is more likely to be a characteristic of the small school is that kindergartners are frequently in school the whole day. Sessions of a half day are often arranged for the large school which enables the school to hold a second half-day session for another group of beginning pupils.

With a whole day in school, both morning and afternoon rest periods are necessary and play-time is a more important phase of the school day.

A hot noon meal is a regular part of the program and a mid-morning and mid-afternoon snack are advisable. Such a procedure is now an accepted part of the school day and presents no new problems.

Kindergarten in the small school, then, represents little that is different than in the large school, except for the somewhat increased cost per pupil because of a probable longer daily period of care. Health-wise, no hazard is introduced if proper plans are formulated and carried out.

Deciding factors in determining the size of the attendance area should be the length of time the pupil must spend in getting to and from school, and the cost of the transportation. An overly large attendance area means both a longer time on the school bus and a greater per pupil transportation cost. To the extent that transportation is a factor in determining school size both matters must be weighed. At the most the time spent coming and going should not exceed one hour in all. That obviously has a possible bearing on transportation cost per pupil.

CHAPTER IV

EFFECTIVE PROCEDURES FOR SMALL HIGH SCHOOLS

Small high schools have too often sought to carry on their educational activities as large high schools do. This has meant that they attempt to utilize facilities and faculties in much the same way as urban schools, although the conditions are in many ways dissimilar. Today, considerable effort is being made to develop, and to bring into wide use, methods developed especially for small high schools. In this chapter a number of these methods will be described, evaluated and applied to representative situations. Specifically considered will be multiple classes, individualized instruction, school aides, shared services, flexible scheduling and preparation for advance standing in college or university.

Multiple Classes

The idea of multiple classes is not new. When Dr. H. H. Ryan was principal of the University of Wisconsin's Experimental High School, he made use of this means of increasing the number of subjects offered as early as the late 1920's. In a speech at Lincoln, Nebraska in 1936 he said this of the plan:

> There is a fourth avenue into which our research for schedule flexibility may turn, one which because of some fixed notions of our own we have explored very little; that is the mixing of classes of the same grade. Where classes are small, as some of the elective classes are in small schools, I am convinced that it is possible to operate two classes in the same room at the same time under the same teacher. Some years ago our Mrs. Burr taught a sophomore and junior class in German on just this plan. Two different reading lists were used, of course, and the class hour was divided between the two groups. Each

> group got successfully through the standard amount of reading, of appropriate difficulty, and passed the same respective examinations which separate classes have used before and since. It is now our regular practice to admit to any class in fine arts, mechanical drawing, or shop, pupils of all grades. We do this because in this way a great many more pupils can pursue these subjects than could if we maintained separate classes and held rigidly to classification by grade. Schedule conflicts would play havoc with the registration. So while we have two classes in fine arts, each of them is a mixed class; some second year art students take their work in one class and some in the other. There are in one of these classes an eighth grade pupil.

Preoccupation after World War II with school district reorganization, already referred to in Chapter I, resulted in a declining interest in the use of combined classes. Not until the Catskill Area and the Western States Small Schools Projects were instituted in the late 1950's was the idea brought into prominence again, the term "multiple classes" being used. The concept was broadened considerably when reintroduced and it was shown to have even greater possibility for improving small high schools than had formerly been thought possible. This was principally because instructional aids of value to the teaching of multiple classes had been perfected in the meantime; for example, the relatively inexpensive magnetic tape recorder and playback, the filmstrip and the 2" x 2" slide projector. Also available in the late 1950's in considerable numbers were programed texts containing both content material and learning guides and also a wider range than before of self-study syllabi to accompany conventional texts. These aids altered, or at least were capable of altering the duties and responsibilities of the teacher of the multiple class group as they had been described by Dr. Ryan more than twenty years earlier. In other words, the use of

multiple classes, although feasible in the 1930's had become potentially much more effective by the 1950's.

Before going into a specific discussion of multiple classes as they are now typically utilized it will be helpful to give in some detail the possible advantages and disadvantages of this technique and the ways in which teachers can most effectively handle multiple class groups.

It is evident that when an instructor transfers his responsibility from the single-subject room to the room in which two or more subjects are taught during the same period, the number of courses offered by the school with a faculty of a given size is increased. A teacher who might offer, at the outside, as many as five different subjects during the day, each during a different period, will naturally be able to teach more subjects if one or more of the periods is scheduled for multiple classes.

The first reaction of the reader to the statement just made may be dismay at the number of preparations in which the teacher would be involved. This may seem an impossible load. Were it not for the developments enumerated above which so directly facilitate teaching, such concern would be justified. Actually, using methods which have been proved to be effective, a teacher's role may range from the minimal one of providing physical conditions conducive to study as in independent study by correspondence to the one in which the teacher lectures, assigns readings, conducts the recitation and evaluates achievement with the textbook the only resource available to him. In this latter case no self-instructional materials or other teaching aids are available.

When independent study is the teaching method employed the teachers need not be familiar with the subject matter because it is the instructor at the correspondence center who does the teaching. Assuming utilization of self-teaching or semi-self-directing materials, and when necessary employment of the teacher during the summer months to prepare materials for the multiple classes to be taught, teachers handling even as many as eight or ten different subjects during a school day may be carrying no heavier a load than a teacher responsible for only one or two preparations a day but with five large classes and responsibility for carrying on the whole teaching process practically alone.

Another advantage in using the multiple class approach is that the pupil in the small school is not limited to a single fixed period during which he may study the subject. With a programed text or an individualized syllabus, or even with a series of tapes or guide sheets, the pupil may if necessary do his work on the subject in the library or at the rear of a classroom used for teaching another subject or subjects.

Potential disadvantages do exist, of course. If advance preparation for teaching multiple classes has been inadequate, if the needed aids are lacking, or if a teacher does not enjoy the stimulus of varied activities, the results may be unsatisfactory for both teacher and pupil.

The use of multiple classes presupposes a relatively small enrollment in each subject, an enrollment so limited that to offer any one of the subjects alone during the period would be uneconomical. Multiple classes, though, are not advocated as a way of increasing teacher load, but rather as a means by which subjects which could not feasibly be taught

in individual classes may be offered when two or more subjects are handled by a single teacher during a given period.

There are rather obvious principles to be followed in determining what classes to bring together. The subjects should not be completely dissimilar unless the levels of ability and prior attainment of the pupils are such that the students can work with a minimum of direct oversight. Following are some of the subjects which seem most readily adaptable to multiple classes:

Freshman algebra and general mathematics

Freshman algebra is a relatively abstract subject which has less value for some pupils than general mathematics. If achievement tests and previous class grades are used for screening, those who have aptitude for algebra and an interest in it may be readily separated from the others. This group can carry on its work with a minimum of teacher direction. Particularly is this true if taped directions or study guides to accompany the regular text are available to the pupils. Those who do not have above average aptitude in mathematics and are registered for general mathematics will usually need more teacher attention. Let us say that the pupils in the classroom are divided into two groups, ten to twelve each. The teacher of the multiple group will provide directions and stimulating illustrative material to the students in algebra, much of it probably pre-recorded on tape, but will devote more than half of his time to those who are enrolled in general mathematics.

Advanced mathematics

Students who have completed their work in freshman algebra and have continued to demonstrate their competence and interest in mathematics may well wish to go on in this subject area. In their remaining high school years they may complete advanced algebra and trigonometry, among others. The number registered for each subject will be rather small; therefore, as many as three or four groups may be working in the mathematics room during a given period under one teacher. They will need even less guidance than the freshman algebra students. They will be individuals who have a clear purpose in taking mathematics and possess the basic skills required to continue work in the field. A teacher of mathematics thus may conceivably direct a total of five or six subjects during two periods, at least two during one period and as many as four during the other period. If scheduling difficulties make it impractical to place together all the students taking advanced mathematics those who would otherwise be discommoded may go into the beginning class or elsewhere and work independently. As in all subjects taught in multiple classes, independent study is used if the supervising teacher is not qualified to provide instruction.

Elementary and advanced shopwork

Since so much of the work done in the school shop can be carried on with the help of job sheets that require a minimum of group instruction, it stands to reason that there is little need for the students to be at a specified and uniform grade level. In fact, even

though the class group may begin as all first year or second year students, it will not be long before the range and variety of skills and interests becomes so diverse that the work is virtually on an individual basis. To include in one class both elementary and advanced shopwork does not represent any appreciable further spread in the range of work. Ryan, referred to on page 47, spoke specifically of shop as suitable for multiple classes.

Instruction in one or more foreign languages

In foreign language, pupils are likely not to sit together or take turns in translating. Whatever the specific method used by multiple classes, each pupil is working ahead, going at his own rate, often with supplementary instruction given by tape. Group instruction is thus lessened and probably can be still further reduced as time goes on.

Bookkeeping and business arithmetic

This is a combination that lends itself to multiple classes quite readily. Here, as in other subjects taught by the multiple class method, pupils' aptitudes can either be determined from test results or prior performance and a provisional division made. This can be corrected or adjusted by noting the rate at which the work is completed. Some may even be able to finish a year's work in a semester, demonstrating by examination their mastery of the subject field.

Other multiple classes

Superintendent Dariel Clark reported in September 1973 that

several teachers were responsible for multiple classes in Holyoke, Colo. The foreign language instructor is teaching three Spanish classes during the second period and four subjects including beginning Latin during the sixth period. Freshman and sophomore English met with one teacher during the same period, small engine overhaul and agriculture occupations are under one teacher during a regular period, students in two areas of advanced science are with teachers who handle biology and chemistry separately. During another semester or school year somewhat different arrangements will be made, depending on the number needing or desiring a particular subject.

A count of the multiple classes now scheduled shows that more than a dozen subjects that are offered could not be placed in the schedule with the present number of teachers if every subject was taught alone during a regular class period. Nor could additional teachers have been justified since the number of students who would have been taking these subjects was too small to warrant a separate class.

Quoting directly from a published report from Colorado, we find these statements:

> At Ridgeway, the class bell rings and 22 students enter Mrs. Joy Wilson's room. Twelve of them arrange their desks in a semicircle at the front of the room, open their American history texts, and prepare for a discussion period. At the same time, the other 10 students have taken seats in the back of the room and are listening to Mrs. Wilson explain their written assignment in American government. After answering questions from the government group, Mrs. Wilson joins the discussion group. When students in the study group have finished their assignment, they sign out on the blackboard for

library research or for typing of their project work. This is an example of one way in which a teacher supervises two classes in the same room at the same time.

At Arriba, in Lincoln County, History of Russia and Development of Communism are being taught simultaneously, as are Spanish I and II at Simla. At Ouray, Mrs. Rita Paul combines Latin I and II and says, "I'd even be willing to teach Latin III at the same time." At Mosca, Mrs. Katy Westerman combines bookkeeping and shorthand. Typing and shorthand are taught successfully together at Bennett by Armando Atencio.

Turning to the Catskill Area Project, we quote from one of the teachers:

Have you ever had a class with only three or four students in the classroom with you? Well--this Mark Hopkins approach isn't all it's cracked up to be, in my opinion. Somehow such a tiny class seems to lack the stimulation--social and intellectual--which comes from adding other students to the setting, even though the other students may be studying a different subject.

I started multiple classes because we wanted to expand language offerings and reduce schedule conflicts. This meant we would not have to alternate courses, and it meant that we did not force all students in a given offering--say Latin II--to take the course in the same period of the schedule. But I found that multiple classes seemed to yield many dividends beyond increased offerings and reduced schedule conflicts. I know now that my language classes are better than they were before I started multiple classes. And perhaps more important--I feel that new answers to continued improvement in these classes are just ahead.

. . . . .

It hasn't been easy, of course. I have worked two summers to prepare tapes and written guides. CAP sponsors meetings of a multiple class study group, and I have had invaluable assistance from teachers in all subject-matter areas. These people from various project schools have traded ideas, shared materials and practices in their exploration of how to organize and conduct better multiple classes.

Also in New York State, in part among the Catskill Area schools,

considerable work has been done in combining business education classes. Among the more successful combinations reported are multi-level business law, introduction to business and business law, salesmanship and typewriting, 12th year vocational business practices and typewriting, shorthand II and transcription, plus, typewriting. Many other combinations have been used also, most of them with considerable success.

In a bulletin published by the New York State Department in 1964 these statements are made about the advantages of multiple classes:

> Partial elimination of the alternation of courses aids in planning the pupil's 4-year program. In case of failure in a particular course, there is not a year's delay before it can be repeated . . . . . subjects that would not ordinarily be offered at all because of insufficient demand can now be made available through multiple classes. . . . .
>
> . . . . . Multiple classes also make the equipment available to a greater number of pupils.
>
> The teacher's time is used more efficiently since multiple classes permit a more equitable teacher load and assist in the elimination of extremely small classes.[1]

Very important to the teacher of multiple classes is the availability of individualized study guides to go with the text or laboratory manual that is used. It has been demonstrated, as will be shown in a later section, that well-written guides, even without a qualified teacher present, enable interested pupils to achieve successfully in their school work. These guides have great potential in the multiple

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[1] Multiple Class Teaching Procedures; The University of the State of New York, Education Building, Albany, NY 12224, 1964, p. 14.

class situation, also. Programed texts are aids that have similar values.

Steps Toward Individualization

A review of the development of high school instruction over a period of many decades will show that in its earlier years in the United States great dependence was placed upon word-of-mouth teaching or lecturing. This persisted for many decades. Even after that method had begun to assume less importance in the United States as textbooks were improved it continued for an additional period in European secondary schools. The United States with its rapid growth in school enrollment both at the elementary and the secondary levels came to place increasing emphasis upon the textbook in the teaching situation. Much experimentation has been devoted to the organization of books and a level of vocabulary appropriate to each grade. Many mistakes have been made, no doubt, but the overall result has been the production of textbooks probably unexcelled anywhere else in the world. In the high school, with qualified teachers, good textbooks and supplementary materials and from twenty to thirty pupils in the classroom, an economical and effective teaching-learning situation can be maintained. The difficulty comes when either a fully qualified teacher is not available or the needed minimum number of pupils is not at hand. The principal could say "Since less than fifteen pupils are interested we will not be able to schedule the class." That is not so likely to happen in the large school because it is an infrequent occasion when the minimum number of pupils needed to warrant a class is not available.

In a small high school, though, the situation is different. Many are the times when fewer than fifteen pupils wish to register or are competent to register for a particular subject. Schools in recent years, particularly, have been inclined to lower the minimum number required. Sometimes facing possible loss of accreditation if the range of subjects offered is too limited, classes with from six to ten pupils may be scheduled. Obviously the cost per pupil is materially increased by doing this. The authors have found many small high schools operating today so determined to provide a broad curriculum in spite of their limited enrollment that they may have as few as seven pupils on the average per teacher. By way of contrast urban high schools almost always have twenty pupils or more per teacher. An unduly small pupil-teacher ratio exposes any school to justified criticism. The multiple class plan used judiciously and under the proper conditions will facilitate increasing the number of pupils per teacher to a realistic point. Individualized materials, as has been pointed out, increase the effectiveness of multiple classes. It is appropriate, therefore, that we here discuss individualized instruction or independent study by correspondence in some detail.

Independent Study

Individualized instruction may be used in high schools in other ways than those just enumerated. Beginning with Benton Harbor Michigan's experiment with supervised correspondence study which was first reported in 1923[1], many high schools all over the United States have at

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[1] S. C. Mitchel, For the Ninety Per-cent, School Review, 31:439-444, June 1923.

some time or another registered boys and girls by correspondence in subjects for which the demand in their school is so small that not even multiple classes are feasible.

Independent study is a plan designed to enable a high school pupil to study by correspondence under the guidance of a local supervisor. The administrator of the school names a supervisor who secures the instructional materials from the correspondence center for the pupil and handles the lessons sent to and returned by the center. The course is normally considered a part of the regular workload of the pupil, and he has definite study periods with supervision. The purpose of the supervision given within the school is to provide a time and a place for study and to encourage the student to maintain good habits of work. He is to make use of the laboratory and library facilities of the school as needed and to take advantage of the community resources which are available. The high school in which the pupil is enrolled grants credit toward graduation for each course completed, upon recommendation of the correspondence center.

When the student is registered for a particular subject to work by himself the flexibility with respect to the conditions under which he may study is at a maximum. He may do his individual work in the rear of the classroom with the others in the room working perhaps at a different subject. He may work in the library or study hall or, if necessary, at home. An occasional high school student must do his work away from school during a part of or all of the year. He may be at home during the winter months because of impassable roads or he may

be at home or in the hospital because of physical incapacity. If pupils in such a situation have questions about their assignment, they may write directly to the correspondence teacher. In fact, it is this procedure that is often recommended under those circumstances.

As the definition of independent study just given indicates, there is usually a supervisor to see to it that the material received reaches the student, to mail in the papers and to proctor the examinations. The supervisor should be a person of warm interest who really cares how the independent study student is getting along. No great amount of time is needed but there must be interest and concern. Among the publicly operated correspondence schools in the United States the University of Nebraska has the largest high school program. In 1972 there were 10,000 students whose papers were being evaluated by a teaching staff at the University of Nebraska and 10,000 more using the Nebraska syllabi who received their instruction from other extension divisions in American universities. Much work is also done through proprietary correspondence schools in the United States and through public and private correspondence schools in other countries.

Correspondence instruction for elementary and high school pupils of school age began in Australia, New Zealand and Canada about the time of World War I. Within the last half-century it has increasingly taken hold in the United States. It is said that some foreign correspondence schools number their students in the hundreds of thousands. Russia makes very extensive use of correspondence instruction at the secondary, trade school and college level.

It is not necessary here to attempt to prove that independent study is effective. The evidence is conclusive. It is of interest to note that of those who register for independent study at the University of Nebraska 70 per cent finish the courses. Standardized subject matter tests administered at that institution to independent study pupils and to control groups have indicated that in almost every subject field the independent study pupils have a measurably higher level of achievement than those who receive their instruction in class groups. Perhaps the most striking study carried on at the University of Nebraska was a comparison of subsequent performance in college mathematics classes of an experimental group that had taken its prerequisite high school mathematics by correspondence and a control group that had carried its high school work in regular classes.[1] Those who had studied by correspondence completed their college work with an achievement one grade point higher than those who had been taught by the conventional method. The grading system used had a range of nine points. The instruction given those who had carried on the high school work by correspondence was provided by fully qualified mathematics teachers in every case. Without such qualifications the individuals would not have been approved to write and/or to direct learning by means of the syllabi. Perhaps more important, the correspondence pupil had to depend largely upon his own initiative. If he let his mind wander or if he stopped work for a time, all progress halted. A pupil carrying

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[1]G. B. Childs, "A Comparison of Supervised Correspondence Study Pupils and Classroom Pupils in Achievement in School Subjects," 1949. (Unpublished)

his work in a regular class is not always so attentive. The class can go on for a short time and he may hope to catch up later, in part at least.

Partial Individualization of Instruction

Independent study represents practically complete individualization of instruction in the subject or subjects being studied. Programed instruction may involve complete or partial individualization. This section presents typical situations in which partial individualization is advantageous and also the ways in which such individualization may be used most effectively.

One characteristic of partial individualization is the absence of a partnership with a teaching agency outside the school, for example the correspondence center that is used in independent study. A syllabus or other self teaching material more often than not will be purchased just as textbooks are purchased. The evaluation of the pupil's work will be done within the school. This means that the subject matter competency required for instruction must be found in the regular teaching staff. The individuals utilized must have certificates which attest to their competence in the subject. If that is not the case the work taken by the pupil cannot, as a rule, be accepted for credit. Assuming that a qualified staff member is available, the possible uses of partial individualization are numerous. Following are illustrations.

1. The rapid learner or the individual with special interests or needs can be given a supplemental unit to be completed outside of class time. For this practice to be effective the school must have a select

file of these units and where textbooks are involved also, the texts that are needed. These are not to be in the school library but in a separate file available only at the discretion of the teacher. They are to be returned to the file when not in use by a student. A unit or a part of a unit within an independent study course will qualify as supplemental individualized material. A school should have on hand, then, at least two copies of the syllabus for each course being used and texts that accompany the syllabus. Not all correspondence centers will sell syllabi without the teaching service. There are centers that will do so, though, thus permitting the acquisition of an adequate file.

2. The syllabi just referred to may be used on occasion to substitute simpler or background material for the pupil who is among the less able or less advanced in the class. In fact, with a considerable variety of materials available, the school is in a position to provide for a variety of supplemental instructional needs.

3. Partial individualization has perhaps its greatest potential usefulness when the teacher has responsibility for multiple classes.

Programed Instruction and Teaching Machines

Programed instruction is individualized teaching. It is usually a text which gives specific directions and does not permit one to go on without proof of mastery of the phase of the particular topic being studied. There may be a machine which requires the correct response before freeing the individual to proceed. First presented by Pressey

in the 1920's it is recognized as a tool of learning, although not a panacea.[1]

It was almost inevitable that mechanization and automation for production and control in industry should have lead to studies of this same principle in teaching. In fact, machines have for many years had an impact on learning. This impact probably began with the development of the printing press. Except for that one development, however, there was little change for hundreds of years. Beginning with the second decade of the 20th century, though, there have been increasingly rapid developments. The glass slide shown with a cumbersome slide projector appeared. Later there was the 35mm motion picture projector, then the 16mm motion picture with non-inflammable film.

These developments, though, are slow in making an impact on the pattern of teaching. Even with an increase in the number and use of instructional aids, the teacher and class have remained the almost universal pattern. Also, the number of pupils per teacher has decreased on the whole instead of increasingas has occurred in industry with the growth of mechanization. Actually, then, the introduction and development of aids to teaching has to this point not led to a greater output per worker (teacher) in terms of number of pupils reached. The gain has been in the effectiveness of learning and with that a gain in productiveness.

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[1] Pressey, S. L., "Simple Apparatus which Gives Tests and Scores and Teaches," School and Society, pp. 23, 373-6, March 20, 1926.

School Aides

A school aide is an adult employed to perform non-instructional duties, particularly those duties which would otherwise require so much time of the instructor as to hinder his professional duties. More likely than not a school aide will find herself (or himself) giving several types of service during the course of a day, rather than one. A school aide may assist more than one instructor.

The use of school aides is not exactly a new idea. Anyone not holding a teacher's certificate who is employed by a school to assist teachers is really a school aide. This person may be a typist who prepares dittoed or mimeographed sheets to be used in some class. Illustrations are given on page _____ of the use of non-certified personnel in schools for duties teachers would otherwise perform.

The use of school aides first came into prominence in the early 1950's when the Fund for the Advancement of Education made a grant to Central Michigan State College at Mount Pleasant to support what was termed Cooperative Studies for the Better Utilization of Teacher Competence. One of the important techniques studied was the use of school aides. The community that received particular attention nationally in utilizing aides was Bay City, Michigan.

In many areas professional persons employ, as assistants, individuals of less training than they. Registered nurses are assisted by nurses aides, dentists and physicians by dental or medical assistants, lawyers by law clerks and the like. Legally qualified professional men and women today would not consider doing themselves everything that

is related to their profession. In teaching, the idea has been slower in taking hold. There are times when those who certify teachers have classified as instruction, activities which are really not in that category. The rulings made have sometimes resulted in the employment of certified teachers to carry out duties which could be performed at less cost and as well by other competent but non-certified adults in the community.

School aides are valuable whether the school is large or small. They are considered here particularly in the small school setting. Much experience has been accumulated with which to back up recommendations that are made. Let us enumerate some duties which teacher aides may carry out:

1. Typing and duplicating
2. Checking papers with the objective responses.
3. Averaging marks
4. Checking attendance
5. Maintaining bulletin boards
6. Making posters
7. Helping with assemblies and plays
8. Locating reference material
9. Making booklists
10. Preparing charts
11. Distributing materials
12. Assisting with laboratory equipment
13. Providing relief in emergencies
14. Helping to proctor examinations
15. Assembling and operating audiovisual equipment
16. Supervising class committees
17. Making holiday decorations
18. Helping with dances and parties
19. Supervising playground activities
20. Supervising the lunchroom and study hall

Of course, one cannot decide one day to make use of school aides and then begin using them the next. Teachers who are accustomed to

working by themselves are apt to find it difficult to make effective use of an assistant. A school hoping to use aides should discuss the idea with the teaching staff and then try it out with the members of the faculty who are interested in cooperating. This trial basis should be looked upon as an experiment and the outcome should be checked thoughtfully. Assuming that the trial period is successful, one or more additional school aides may be added the next semester.

Although experimentally using a school aide to assist interested teachers does in a way both train the teachers and the school aides on the job, meetings of teachers and of school aides (assuming that more than one is employed) either separately or grouped together will make for more effective use of such assistance. Up to this point relatively few teachers in their pre-service professional training have become informed about or observed school aides. The knowledge and skill teachers acquire in using aides will, in most cases, come while they are on the job. The technique to be of most value must be well understood. Certainly the school aide, also, must comprehend the potential values of her services and this can best come by making performance more effective.

If schools within a rather compact geographic area are employing a number of school aides, it would be helpful for these aides to be brought together for in-service education to improve their competence. This is as important as for teachers, since the whole purpose is to obtain the most effective service possible.

The school aide should be at the minimum a high school graduate,

respected in the community and able to give at least a half a day of service regularly. Practically every community has people who qualify and who would welcome the opportunity to combine a job with home responsibilities. Pay will usually be at an hourly rate.

Teachers may feel that the employment of aides is a way of getting more work from them rather than a means of making this service more effective. The latter is actually the purpose. Teachers using aides are assumed to be professional people and they are expected to bring a higher level of education to more students when they, as teachers, have assistance. The basic reason for using aides is to permit a broader program for the pupils in the school. Multiple classes, for example, can be more readily arranged and carried on if aides are employed. This means that the teacher not only instructs more students but may enable them to obtain a type of education which more directly meets their interests and needs.

These suggestions are helpful in the selection and employment of school aides. It is urged that:

1. School aides be employed only to serve specific worthwhile needs.
2. School aides possess competence in the proposed jobs they may be assigned to do.
3. Teachers, with whom school aides will work, understand and approve the assignment and the basic purpose of the services aides will provide.
4. Persons selected for assignments as school aides generally have prior experience that will make them more competent as aides.
5. A sense of loyalty to the school and a proper regard for

professional ethics be understood as prerequisite to appointment as a school aide.

6. There will be adequate provision for a program of preservice orientation for school aides, the teachers with whom they will be associated and for other members of the staff.

7. School aides be persons who will welcome opportunities to improve their efficiency through in-service education.

8. Coverage for school aides under civil service or some form of retirement plan be provided.

9. Pay increases commensurate with the school aide's growing competence be scheduled.

10. School aides, being non-certified personnel, assume only non-instructional duties.

11. The school's insurance carrier be consulted to determine if such non-certified personnel as school aides fulfill the school's obligation to provide supervisory personnel for pupils.

There are cautions to be observed in considering the employment of school aides. There is first of all, the need to consider the influence of the aide upon the pupils with whom she has contact. It is true that outside the school there are individuals who exert both positive and negative influences. Within that school staff, though, the administrator has a considerable degree of discretion. It is within his prerogative to recommend the appointment of only those who have the qualities that are constructive in their influence.

It is perhaps unnecessary to point out that the simple act of employing school aides, however competent they may be, does not insure greater efficiency in the use of teacher time or a higher quality of teaching. An aide is a potentially valuable resource who becomes a resource, in fact, only when properly trained for her duties and

only when the teachers are prepared in attitude and in knowledge to make effective use of those services.

Shared Services

Like school aides, shared services have been utilized on a casual basis for many years. Since the early 1920's the word 'itinerant teacher' has appeared in professional literature. This teacher may have taught music weekly in four or five schools, the schools utilizing this service contributing to the total salary in accordance with the amount of teaching service received. Here, it will be noted, instruction in the subject was given once or at the most two days a week.

Language teaching, physical education, and school nursing are services that can be shared. As roads and automobiles were improved a few schools ventured to share teachers on a daily basis, a half day in one school and the other half of the day in a school within usually not more than a half hour of driving. This did mean to a degree, at least, duplication of space and equipment within each school although both the space and the equipment often was so well planned for multiple use that there was little or no loss in efficiency in the use of each building.

It was not until the Catskill Area Small Schools Project and the Western States Small Schools programs gave detailed consideration to experimentation with and evaluation of what they called shared services, that educators in considerable numbers seemed to think seriously of its possibilities for small schools. Of course, a good deal had happened to highways and to automobiles in the meantime. Even in areas of heavy snowfall

over a third or a half of the school year, there came to be no hesitancy in scheduling daily travel for teachers of special subjects for which demand in the small school was limited. Each school can legally employ the teacher for that share of the school day for which it receives his teaching service.

It is evident that the use of shared services is really an alternative to the transportation of pupils greater distances in order to permit the establishment of schools each large enough to justify the employment of otherwise shared teachers on a full-time basis. Obviously, financial considerations are involved. It is more economical for the teacher to travel than for the student body to go to a more distant school.

There are rather infrequent occasions when the equipment or other special facilities required for a subject are so expensive or require space of so specialized a nature that duplication of the facilities is not feasible. In that case it may be best to transport a whole class to the school that has the facilities. This would come during the regular school day when the bus needed is not otherwise in use. It may be possible to arrange for double periods, thus reducing the travel necessary by fifty per cent.

The resources that are shared are often not subject-matter teachers but rather specialists for supplying such services as guidance and health. These individuals may be able to serve even more than two schools without a significant loss of their effectiveness. Certainly no school would consider giving up any of these special services without carefully exploring the possibility of sharing a specialist with one or more other schools.

Flexible Scheduling

Although a flexible schedule is a potential asset in all secondary schools, it is especially valuable in the small high school. The flexibility most often made use of is scheduling of periods of varying length. Below is shown a flexible achedule of this type. Beside classes of differing length and scheduled times, other variations, for example, multiple classes, can be included.

If the demand for a subject becomes large enough on occasion and if a qualified teacher is available, a class can be scheduled. This is on the assumption that a period can be found when the pupils have no conflicts. Those pupils of strong interests and ability who choose classes not many want, are large self-motivating. These pupils need an encouraging word now and then and if they lag they occasionally need to be reminded as to what is expected. Working with them, though, is generally stimulating to the teacher because the pupils know where they are going and why.

The chances are strong that by working in the summer and during holidays, hours of study will be accumulated to the point that the course is finished before the semester or year ends. We are speaking here of pupils of extraordinary zeal and ability. Smallness of the school is no deterrent to work that fits the needs, interests and abilities of the pupils enrolled. When any preconceived image of the usual way of providing instruction is by-passed, the talented child has his opportunity.

A Flexible Secondary School Schedule						
	Module	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday
8:30	1	Mathematics	Music	Mathematics	Mathematics	Mathematics
	2		English	English		Music
	3	English			English	
	4	Social Studies	Independent Study	Physical Education	Independent Study	Physical Education
	5					
	6			Science		Science
	7		Lunch	Lunch		Lunch
	8	Lunch	Science	Health	Lunch	Independent Study
	9	Science		Independent Study	Science	
	10	Typing	Independent Study			
	11					
	12	Independent Study			Music	
	13		Social Studies			Typing
	14		Mathematics		Social Studies	English
3:30	15			Social Studies		

Advanced Placement

In hundreds of high schools, students of exceptional ability are studying freshman year college courses in scheduled classes at regular hours and under approved teachers. At the time of college entrance, or just before, they may take examinations administered by the college and thus seek to demonstrate their mastery of the college level subject or subjects they have studied. If by examination they show sufficient mastery they are given college credit in the course and allowed to move to a more advanced level. In small high schools they may take the college level courses by independent study and by examination be given advanced standing credit at the time of entrance to college or university. Whether the course is taken in a special class under an accredited teacher or by independent study while still in high school, advanced standing is given to the outstanding college freshman as an alternative to high school graduation at an undesirably early age.

The Unusually Talented in the Small High School

It is sometimes said that the unusually talented do not have as favorable an opportunity in the small high school as in the large school. It is true that in the large high school classes can be included in areas for which demand and need are limited. For example, a course in Shakespeare may be scheduled for those who have special skills, talent and interest. The small high school is in no way handicapped, though, by size. The individual, or two or three individuals, who have this high degree of interest and ability can be registered by independent

study for the course desired. That can be done in the larger high school also but it is probable that the school will offer the course only as a class and if the demand is sufficient to make a fairly good-sized group. Also, when the class method is used, scheduling conflicts show up. With independent study, scheduling is not a problem since the pupil works in the library or study hall during a free period.

CHAPTER V

HEALTH EDUCATION AND HEALTH SERVICES IN THE SMALL TWELVE-GRADE SCHOOL

Health is dynamic. It results from the interaction of many factors and conditions. Actually, health is a combination of physical, mental and social well-being, all interrelated. For example, physical illness affects one's emotional well-being and also one's social relationships.

Health education is education for healthful living of the individual, family, and community. Health education is an academic field. Its content must have meaning and purpose to students now as well as in the future. The facts, principles and concepts pertaining to healthful living make up knowledge to be taught. The purpose, then,of the teaching is to favorably change health behavior, i.e., attitudes and practices.

Adequate health education can create in students:

Interest in health and safety aspects of their own daily activities,
a sense of personal health responsibility,
a feeling of responsibility for community health,
a critical attitude toward advertising of health services and products,
an understanding of their own growth and development,
an appreciation for good health,
pride in developing and maintaining good health.

It should be stated here that health education and physical education are separate and distinct fields. They have similar goals, are related, but their activities are completely different. Physical education programs, if properly conducted, contribute to the health of individuals.

Health education in the schools is based on these assumptions: (1) Health is important for it gives meaning to living; (2) health is power

to work and to play--power to enjoy life; (3) rest, sleep, balanced diet, freedom from infection, and exercise are ingredients of health. Children need protection from strain, from overexcitement, and from unreasonable demands from adults. It is certainly within the power of teachers to provide a pleasant atmosphere in the schoolroom. Soft voices can be cultivated. An enjoyable schoolroom may be the result of the cooperative effort of teacher and pupils rather than of the expenditure of much money.

The areas studied, the scope of the curricular offerings and emphasis must be chosen to meet real needs. The chart of suggested topics and grade placement on the following page is recommended by the Nebraska State Department of Education. The state department of education in your particular state is an excellent source from which to obtain suggested course materials and related activities for both pupils and teachers.

Health Programs and Practices

Health education in academic offerings has no meaning unless procedures are established at school and in the community to put the learning into practice. A health program cannot be fully effective without cooperation and assistance from the home.

Health fads and quackery, health propaganda, and misleading testimonial advertising have confused many adults as to the meaning of health. Such admonitions as "Eat this or that," and "Use our special ointment" have misled many of us as to health procedure. Children may be forced to memorize lists of health rules while the very situation

SUGGESTED SCOPE AND SEQUENCE CHART

The following Scope and Sequence Chart has been developed to assist the teacher in establishing the starting point and suggested periods of greatest concentration in specific areas of instruction. Schools may find it best to alter this suggested alignment to better meet local needs. The horizontal arrows indicate altering the grade level placement of a topic in an acceptable and even recommended practice.

	K-3	4-6	7-9	10-12
Alcohol		I-B	H	H
Anatomy	I	I-B	H	R
Community Health	I-B	B	H	C
Consumer Health	I	I-B	H	H
Dental Health	I-B	H	C	R
Disease Control	I	B	H	H
Drugs and Narcotics	I	B	H	H
Family Relationships	I	B	H	H
Health Careers	I	I	B	H
Heredity and Environment	I	B	H	C
Human Growth & Development	I	B	H	H
Mental Health	I	B	H	H
Nutrition	I-B	H	H	C
Physical Fitness	I	B	H	H
Physiology	I	B	H	C
Safety	I-B	H	H	C
Smoking		I-B	H	C

I - Introduction
C - Continuing Emphasis
B - Basic Content Development
R - Reinforcement of Content
H - Heaviest Concentration

in which they are memorizing them violates the rules they are learning. At home, the fathers and mothers of these children follow their personal whims as to food likes and dislikes, may drink to excess, keep late hours, and even vote against community health proposals with no ill effects that the children can discern. All this leads to the question: "How can the small school have meaningful health programs that really function in the lives of the students?" Small schools may be in a better position than larger schools actually to improve conditions because the small schools have more direct contact with homes and community leaders to bring about the changes in the environment needed to improve health situations in a particular locality.

In practice, all small schools should establish:

1. First Aid

First-aid service should be established so that playground injuries, accidents, and sudden illnesses at school may be given care. A small room will serve for this purpose, but it should be well lighted and ventilated, and equipped with these articles as minimum equipment: first-aid kit containing adhesive tape, bandage, scissors, cotton, alcohol, thermometer, antiseptic; lavatory or wash basin; hospital bed or cot with sheets, pillow, and two warm blankets; water bottle for hot water or ice as needed; towels; screen (desirable).

This first-aid room may be called the "health room" and may be used for all purposes connected with the holding of health conferences. It should not be used for other purposes such as class work, because of the need for privacy. The room should be left unlocked so that there is

ready access to it in case of emergency without hunting up the health director who may be teaching in another part of the building.

First-aid service should never imply diagnosis and prolonged treatment. That is the responsibility of a doctor, not a teacher. First-aid service does mean making the patient comfortable until he is sent home or an ambulance is called if the accident is serious; the cleansing with soap and water of simple wounds, and treatment with a disinfectant to guard against infection in cuts or abrasions to knees, elbows, and heads; treatment and bandaging of sprains until the pupil can have medical care.

Sudden illnesses at school should be taken care of by first segregating the pupil from others. This can be done if there is a health room. Have the student lie down and cover him with a blanket to avoid chilling. Take his temperature and if there is a degree or more of fever, the best thing for everybody concerned is to notify the home (by telephone, if possible). Arrangements may be made with the parents for the removal of the child to his home.

It is a good policy to ask the parents to call the doctor if medical care seems advisable; otherwise the school or the teacher herself may be liable for the fee. There may be times of serious injury when delay would be dangerous or when the parents cannot be reached. To meet such a situation the principal himself should call. The principal should announce to all teachers at the beginning of the year the policy concerning the calling of doctors. A workable plan which protects the school from liability is to have the parents sign a form at the beginning of the year which asks, "In case of emergency, do you wish the school to call

a doctor? If so, please give name and telephone number of doctor to be called." These slips should be filed alphabetically by pupil names in order that they may be ready for immediate use.

The Red Cross puts out a handbook of first-aid treatment which may be obtained by writing to any of their local chapters, usually located at county seat town.

2. Physical and Medical Examinations

Ideally, each child should be given at least one complete physical-medical examination yearly through the junior high school years. An examination upon entrance into the tenth grade should suffice for the remainder of the high-school period unless the student engages in inter-school sports or additional defects are discovered or serious illnesses occur. In these cases, students should be re-examined at appropriate intervals.

The present tendency is away from routine examinations at school and at the physican's office. In each small school visited in the past year the only physical examinations required were for boys and girls who were engaged in inter-school athletics. In one school this meant all high-school students since everyone was on a team.

Physical examinations are made by the student's own doctors and the forms are then brought to the school. The objectives of the school program should be understood by the physican. In small communities there are usually not more than two or three doctors and the superintendent or principal can call on the doctors and explain the athletic programs. Putting the responsibility on the parents also relieves the school of the cost of the physical examination.

3. A Cooperative Contact Between School and Home

Some steps in securing cooperation between school and home are:

1. Calls at the homes by the teacher. A great deal can be accomplished through home calls if the teacher has a genuine interest in the pupils who seem to have health problems. Arrangements should be made by note, or telephone, concerning the day and time of the call.
2. The health director may explain, at a meeting of the Parent-Teacher Association early in the year, any program for school health measures that are to be stressed. This presentation should stress the correcting of defects by the family physician, the practice of health habits at home and in the school, together with the meaning of these factors in terms of the children's welfare and happiness at school and in community and vocational life. It must be made clear that the school does not wish to invade the privacy of the home, but rather that it desires to supplement and aid the home in an effort to promote the child's health.

Do not, under any circumstances, embarrass the child or threaten him with punishment or penalty if needs such as dental work, or the provision of eye-glasses are not met. To do so will only arouse antagonism and dislike for the teacher and the program. It is better to make a friendly call at the home to make sure that the parents understand what is needed. Do not be demanding with parents.

Placing in the local newspaper short items of interest regarding the health work in the school helps to foster awareness. Such items

as these may be written about: (a) very good attendance records; (b) health stories and dramas, especially in lower grades; (c) comparison of days lost because of illness during the current year with the record of previous years; (d) interesting projects; such as feeding of different diets to mice to watch growth patterns.

4. Health Advice: Weighing and Measuring

A gain or loss of weight in the growing child is an index to health only in that it is an indication of normalcy or deviation from it. It is normal that boys and girls should gain steadily in weight from birth until they reach maturity. At some periods growth is more rapid and weight increases more rapidly than at others. Failure to gain in weight over a limited time is not necessarily indicative that anything is wrong. However, if the child continues to fail to gain weight over an extended period, or loses weight, it is time that a definite check be made of the child's physical condition, and that his health habits be given careful scrutiny.

Children in the elementary grades should be weighed and measured at the beginning of each school year. Unless children are seriously underweight (10 to 20 percent) or overweight by 20 percent or more, the prevailing practice is not to weigh them again during the year. Guard against overemphasizing the importance of weight and thus making pupils self-conscious. Bear in mind that people vary in type through hereditary and racial influencex. A slender, high-strung race horse may be in the best of health, although it would look frail compared to a draft horse. A tendency to obesity may be the result of family diet and eating habits.

However, if a teacher in an elementary grade notes marked change in weight in any pupil, she should confer with the mother as to possible cause and suggest that a physician's advice be sought.

The height and weight of the previous year's weigh-in will serve as an indicator of normal growth.

5. Provision for Free Services

Inoculations for diphtheria, polio, and typhoid, together with smallpox vaccinations and treatment of common skin infections are so necessary in preventing epidemics that schools now provide such services when the children have not been immunized in infancy. Many schools make provisions in their budgets for dental clinics. In smaller towns it may be necessary to enlist the financial support of some organization. The Parent-Teacher Association, Women's Club, a church society, or a men's service club may undertake the support of such clinics. The children may pay a small fee each time they have a dental appointment so that they need not feel the stigma of charity. Needless to say, arrangements for clinical service should be made with the local doctors and dentists, if possible.

Eye glasses for needy cases are sometimes provided through the contributions of one of the service groups in the community that might be willing to adopt this as an annual project. The Lions Club has a program of sight-saving.

6. Inspection of Returning Absentees

Observation of those returning to school after absence for any reason and release by the physician if they have been under a doctor's

care, guards the school against outbreaks of epidemics and serves as a safeguard to the health of the individual pupil. Sometimes a child coming down with a contagious disease will feel ill and remain at home for a day or so until he seems better. Then he may return to school just in time to expose an entire roomful of children. If children, instead of loitering on the playground when they return, are taught to report directly to the health room for a check-out, the spread of diseases can be minimized. Pupils having a temperature above normal, signs of skin eruption, or a sore throat should be sent home because they are not well enough to participate in the activities of the school day. A note should be sent with the pupil to the mother giving her the facts revealed by the inspection. If the mother is employed, some provision for illnesses of her children should have been made at the beginning of the school year and this information filed.

It is not recommended that administrators attempt to provide vision and hearing check-ups unless a trained person is available. These areas require specialists for diagnosis and treatment. Teachers can sometimes alleviate the problem of hard-of-hearing children by moving them to the front of the room if children are sitting in rows and by speaking directly to the child. Difficulties in seeing chalkboard writing can also be lessened by seating. In the main, these physical health problems should be referred to the home for proper examination by doctors.

CHAPTER VI

AUDIO-VISUAL AIDS IN SMALLER HIGH SCHOOLS

In the first decade of this century the purpose of the school was still thought of largely as a step in the preparation for college or university. Learning, it was assumed, would be based mainly on reading, lectures and some laboratory work. For a few there were shop experiences, also. Increasingly, illustrative materials of superior quality were included in the texts, but by the standards of the 1970's they were inadequate.

For several hundreds of years there had been educational leaders who argued for observing first hand and for actual participation, that is, learning by doing. These imaginative and perceptive pioneers did have considerable influence on elementary school practices and some on the secondary school. Educators of seventy-five years ago, though, could not have conceived of the opportunities open to teachers today to add interest and reality to their instruction with the help of media which have since been developed. The authors would not imply any limitation in the value of the printed page. As students gain additional experience, words on the page may take on a meaning as they are read much richer than could be given in a picture or with other audio-visual media. On the other hand, printed material or a lecture that lacks in reality or even understandability will become more meaningful and significant if the spoken or printed work is supplemented by other media for increased understanding.

This chapter will, hopefully, make it evident that the small high school, even though it may be geographically isolated or in a sparsely settled area, is in most cases able to make itself as much a part of the quickened life of America as any city high school. The small high school may be in relative physical isolation and at the same time an intimate part of life today. Implementing opportunities for the use of audio-visual media removes a commonly assumed disadvantage of the small school.

Radio and Television

In the 1920's radio showed some indication that it would become an important means of bringing supplemental instruction into the classroom. To a certain extent this did occur and there were even some statewide networks. In general, though, commercial radio took over the desirable AM channels because educational institutions were unable to exploit them. FM was left in part to the schools and at times it was employed to advantage. More often than not, though, states made little or no use of the medium.

When television began to come into American homes after World War II as one of the mass media, the United States was faced with the possibility that this tool of learning would be lost to education as radio had been so largely lost. The danger, in reality, was even greater because television called for a far heavier financial outlay than radio. However, several factors not operating to any considerable degree in the 1920's came to the aid of educational television from the 1940's on. One was the earlier experience with radio which caused educators

and friends of education to resolve that television would not suffer the same fate as radio. Another factor was the realization that although radio was potentially highly valuable as an educational tool, television could be almost priceless. A third factor was the existence of foundation resources available to schools on a scale not even dreamed of in the 1920's. The Fund for Adult Education and the Fund for the Advancement of Education, both of them supported by the Ford Foundation, have contributed a total of two hundred fifty million dollars to help establish educational television stations, to assist in financing research concerning the most effective means of using ETV and to insure the establishment of organizations and libraries for the production and distribution of program materials. In our nation, foundation support has proved to be an effective means by which such assistance could be given to a new public service development of the nature of ETV. Other foundations have also provided financial assistance and professional guidance but only the Ford Foundation had the enormous resources available to see ETV through its early years of development. In 1973 there were more than 200 ETV stations on the air and a number more either under construction or with construction permits granted.

The Federal Communications Commission was solicitous of ETV throughout these early years, as it is today. In 1948, it froze channel allocations for four years while it completed a study of the respective needs of commercial television and Education and of the spacing of channels and stations required to prevent interference and overlapping. At the end of that period, Education was allocated 102 VHF and 154 UHF

channels on a use or lose basis. Knowing the difficulty of securing funds and the time required to complete all the steps in placing a TV station in operation, the FCC has been lenient in extending the period during which channels are reserved, so long as there is evidence of effort and progress in bringing the station into operation.

Television has a much greater potential value to the school than derives from programs made use of only at the time they are transmitted from a studio. This added value comes through their repeated use, or use in the individual school, at some time after they are transmitted. At the beginning this value was realized by first putting the programs on 16 mm film so they could be transmitted later from a television station or used with a regular 16 mm projector in the individual school as the need arose. This plan is still employed effectively and with programs recorded for use under a variety of conditions. It is expensive, though. A variation of this procedure was developed through a process called kinescoping by which at the time the program was transmitted live a filmed copy was made. This had the advantage of providing a master copy without special staging. The disadvantage is that the film carries the TV image rather than the picture itself and there is, therefore, some degradation or limitation of the picture.

Video tapes produced at the television studio have now largely replaced regular motion picture film as a means of pre-recording or simultaneously recording a program. The picture has high fidelity and the tape may be reused many times. Several makes of recorders

and playbacks are now manufactured which use narrow and hence less heavy magnetic tape and which are inexpensive enough to permit purchase by individual schools. The tapes may be filed for reuse, the only limitation being the finances available for the purchase of new tape and the storage space that can be made available. When tape is narrow enough for mailing it may be sent economically from school to school just as 16 mm films are now sent. The school will need only the attachment for its television monitor which permits the projection of the tape.

Other Audio-Visual Equipment Needed by Smaller Schools

A small school's annual budget for other audio-visual equipment need not be large if care is used in purchasing. Minimum needs for the average small six-year school are:

1. A sound 16 mm motion picture projector powerful enough for use in a medium-sized auditorium; others if needed
2. An auditorium screen which is usually fixed
3. Several smaller screens for classroom use
4. Several film strip projectors
5. Several slide projectors
6. Two tape recorders and playbacks with plug-ins on each machine for earphones
7. One or two overhead projectors with which material appearing on a transparency may be shown on a board or screen.
8. Two or more television monitors housed in cabinets which may be moved from room to room. There are now excellent receivers built specifically for classroom use.

To use audio-visual equipment successfully two relatively inexpensive modifications will be needed in buildings that have been in use for some time. These are facilities for darkening not just one classroom and auditorium but all the classrooms and the auditorium, and the installation of wiring which permits the use of television at a number of points in the building.

The Special Problems and Opportunities in Using Audio-Visual Aids in Smaller Schools

If the problems involved in making use of audio-visual aids in small schools were the same as in large schools and if the values or advantages were identical, Chapter VI would not be necessary. There are differences, though, which when taken into consideration can do much to improve the instructional program in the small school.

There is some difference, of course, in the quantity of equipment to be owned by the school. This operates somewhat to the disadvantage of the small school in that the amount needed per 100 pupils will probably be greater in small schools.

With regard to films, filmstrips, slides and perhaps video tapes, it is likely that limited numbers will be owned by the small school while in the largest schools all the materials needed may be owned by the school system's own materials center. The teacher must plan ahead in either case to be sure the material is available when needed. So far as use by the individual teacher is concerned there is very little difference between the values of materials centers operated by a single school system and those operated by a state or region. With respect

to ETV, except for closed circuit installations, availability of programs is the same wherever the school may be located within an area. So far as per pupil cost is concerned there is no appreciable difference one way or the other. State or area materials centers are operated at a cost much the same as centers maintained by a single large school system. It may be somewhat less costly to transport films within the school system than from state center to school. This difference has been minimized by existing postal rates which gives transportation of films by mail the same preference as library books.

There should be no differences in large and in small schools with respect to the ability of teachers, regardless of the size of the school in which they are employed. Workshops can almost as readily be set up for in-service education on an area-wide as on a city-wide basis.

With respect to the advantages to be derived from the use of audio-visual materials, the small school could well obtain advantages from television not found in the city school. The large city school may offer a subject by television because of the possible greater effectiveness in using teaching staff in this way. In the small school a subject may be taught by television because that is the only feasible way of making the subject available at reasonable cost and under the direction of a supervisor-teacher who serves a number of school districts.

When television is used as a supplement to regular classroom instruction at the elementary school level the advantages to smaller schools are great. The teaching of such subjects as science, modern languages and government with television, can always be done by experts in

subject matter and methods. Fifteen minutes spent daily or even two or three days weekly with all the learning aids available to the television teacher will, as much experience already gained has shown, develop significant competence in a foreign language among elementary pupils. General science, with a well-equipped laboratory available, can be brought to elementary pupils who have television. There was some doubt at first as to the effectiveness of art teaching by television. It is now established that it, too, is an excellent field for instruction by that medium.

In-school television telecasts for teachers need not always be directed to pupils. Special telecasts should be planned for the teachers whose pupils are being given supplemental instruction by television. These in-service programs for the teachers will keep them abreast of the curriculum objectives and telecasting plans of the television teacher, of what the regular teacher should do to prepare the pupils for what is coming, and to follow up the work that has been given.

For the older pupils there will often be written assignments and tests to accompany the television programs which the local teachers will evaluate.

Under the direction of a specialist at the TV studio there may be telecast meetings for the faculty regarding professional topics ther than those relating to programs for the pupils. With educational television, faculties may gather in their own schools at a time most convenient to the majority to participate with the ablest specialists available in the subjects discussed. Because the responsibility for

preparing the lecture or demonstration will usually not fall repeatedly on the same individual there will be time for careful preparation. If a given specialist at the studio should have the responsibility for a number of television presentations, there can usually be relief for that specialist from some other responsibility such as one course for the semester to compensate for the added load. Use of television as a means of simultaneous in-service professional education for a number of school faculties is a most fruitful development. It can eliminate any disadvantage small schools may feel they have in promoting the continued growth of the professional staff. This means of improvement will probably become more and more available to school faculties.

In the discussion of in-school television that has continued since its use began, some have maintained that television should on occasion be a means of reducing the number of teachers needed while others have insisted that television does not mean fewer teachers for a given number of pupils but more effective instruction by the same number of teachers. There is a place for both procedures.

An important reason for seeking an economical pupil-teacher ratio is that part of the funds required to bring teachers' salaries to a more acceptable level will in this way become available. We can and probably will return to the taxpayers time after time for more money to educate our youth. If we can make what we do get go further, the chances for paying professional teachers more nearly what people in other professions receive is improved.

Another reason for holding steady or increasing the pupil-teacher

ratio for classroom instruction is the urgency of employing enough competent people to render the specialized services such as counseling and health supervision which schools provide. If one staff member can be moved from classroom teaching to some specialized service the results, so far as a number of pupils is concerned, may be of great importance.

CHAPTER VII

PHYSICAL EDUCATION AND PLAYGROUND ACTIVITIES

This chapter is addressed in the main to instructors in small schools who are asked to assume the teaching of physical education as a part of their instructional load when they have perhaps not had adequate preparation in this field. While much useful literature in the field of physical education is available, it has not been prepared for the particular use of small schools which do have needs peculiar to their situations. The material presented here for classwork, sports and playground activities is offered as a guide to small schools in establishing the work as a basic part of the school program.

Responsibility for the planning of playground activities dealt with later in this chapter should be under physical education because some of the objectives of the two programs are the same: physical efficiency in out-door activities, skills for leisure time use, promotion of good relationships in teamwork, and sportsmanship. The two programs are interrelated throughout the twelve years of public school.

There is need for physical education in small schools and their communities. A balanced activity program helps overcome the tendency to regard interschool athletics as the sum-total of a physical education program. Interschool athletics for both girls and boys should have a prominent part in the program, but there are values to be gained in additional activities for all, such as gymnastics, tumbling, dancing, tennis, swimming, golf, and bowling--the so-called "minor" sports. The Chinese sent a ping-pong (table tennis) team on tour to Canada and

the United States. An individual may become a tumbling enthusiast, an apparatus expert, a champion golfer, a tennis champion, or a performing dancer; or he may learn to enjoy these activities as a carry-over into the recreation of adult life. A balanced physical education program helps students develop satisfying skills in whatever activity they are interested and capable, and find enjoyable.

A physical education program may offer an introduction to new vocational interests. Young people need to become acquainted with the wide areas of choices that are available. Of course, teaching is not new among the professions, neither is the specialized teaching of physical education unknown, but the allied vocations, if one chooses to be trained in any of these fields include: playground directors for towns and cities, camp counselors, welfare program leaders; Y.W.C.A. and Y.M.C.A. directors all over the world.

A balanced physical education program is of help in providing community leadership which is an urgent basic need. Persons who have participated in programs on playgrounds and in schools are better able to understand the values and enjoyment possible, and so are more apt to support continuing effort to bring such programs into the school schedule as well as the community itself. The participants in physical education have the skills to continue in local teams, and to find pleasure in tennis courts, swimming pools and bowling alleys which afford physical activity and pleasure throughout life.

Programs of physical education are ever changing. There is need to evaluate the program currently offered to be sure it is providing

the fullest benefit to the students.

Curriculum in the Elementary School

The following questions are basic in establishing an elementary physical education program.[1]

Does the program:

Give attention to the basic needs of students at their various individual maturity levels?

Include a wide variety of activities which are necessary for a well-rounded physical education program?

Provide frequent opportunities for self-expression and problem-solving?

Account for individual differences?

Provide ample opportunity for the maximum participation of each child?

Reflect the most efficient use of equipment and facilities?

Contribute to a better understanding of safety practices?

Aid students in preparing for real life experiences?

Help to provide success, security, and a sense of belonging for the students?

Include activities which meet the needs of the exceptional child?

Recess or supervised play at noon should not be substituted for physical education classes which should be part of the program of all elementary pupils. Adapted activities should be provided for those individuals who are temporarily or permanently disabled. Exclusion from class should be only upon the recommendation of a physician and

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[1]Taken from Guidlines for Curriculum Development in Physical Education, Nebraska Department of Education.

should state the problem and how long the person is to be excused. Participation in band, orchestra, or drama groups should not be accepted in lieu of physical education.

Activities within the program should be progressively sequential from grade to grade, yet according to the readiness level of the pupils. The curriculum in adequate programs provides opportunities for the student to develop physically, socially and emotionally. It should also provide opportunity for boys and girls to participate in co-educational activities. The elementary curriculum should offer opportunities to develop both leadership and followership qualities. It should provide play experiences in which children can gain knowledge, learn to reason and to make judgments, and develop such other intellectual power as scorekeeping and strategy planning.

The games and skills learned should provide a wide variety of play activities for the leisure hours away from school.

With such important objectives the school should make continuous efforts to upgrade its program by striving for a daily instructional program beginning in the first grade.

The curricular offerings should include games of low organization, group or team games (according to grade level), rhythms, gymnastics, physical fitness activities, individual and dual activities (track and tennis), and swimming, if a pool is available.

Some ideas for curricular inclusion follow:

1. Rope jumping (It is given here in detail as an example of sequential planning).

An activity for all grades at small cost for equipment, with no need for floor markings.

Rope jumping develops agility, coordination, rhythm and endurance. It is enjoyed by both boys and girls. It can be of simple skills which a first grader can master, or it can be difficult and challenging for older boys and girls.

Basically all rope jumping means the stunt of jumping over the rope at the correct instant, that is, individuals must jump into the air so the rope can pass under their feet.

The following guidelines from the curriculum supplement of the Nebraska State Department of Education should be kept in mind in teaching children to jump rope:

1. Children should be taught to jump on the balls of their feet and not flat-footed.
2. They should be taught to jump straight up with their whole body, not just bending the knees and lifting the feet.
3. They should be taught to strive for a low rather than a high jump. They should jump just high enough for the rope to slip between the feet and the floor or the ground.

With so many interesting rope jumping activities to test one's skills, and with pupils wanting to be actively involved, it is important to have a good supply of jumping ropes. Each child should be supplied with one. A good guideline is to have enough individual jump ropes for each pupil, plus one long jumping rope for every five pupils.

Rope jumping can be used effectively for programs and exhibitions. Children may be in bright costumes and ropes may be decorated for attractive presentations.

Additional suggestions adapted from the physical education curriculum guide supplement from the Nebraska State Department of Education include:

Make Your Own Jump Ropes

It is more economical to buy a coil of rope and make your own jump ropes than it is to buy them ready-made. The following suggestions offer a simple and efficient way to make your own jumping ropes.

1. Buy a 100- 200-foot coil of rope. Usually the individual jumping ropes should be of lighter material than the long ropes.

2. As you begin to unwind the coil of rope, wrap tape around 6" of the end. Unwind enough rope so that 20-30 feet lie flat on the ground. After deciding upon the lengths of ropes desired, use a felt-tip pen to mark off the lengths. Starting 6" on one side of each line, wrap tape for one foot. Cut the rope at the middle of each taped area. You will find this method of taping much easier than trying to wrap loose rope ends.

3. Use different colored tape for different rope lengths. This makes for easy identification of ropes for the short, medium, or tall child. Generally, jumping ropes are between 7-9 feet long. It would be advantageous to make some ropes of each length (7, 8, and 9 feet). With different colored tape for each length they can be sorted and stored easily. Long jump ropes usually vary between 24 and 30 feet in length.

4. Colored pegs, mounted on a wall (with colors to match the ropes), provided an excellent way to store the ropes, as well as making them easily accessible to the children.

Individual Rope Routines

A. Jumping in Place (K-6)

1. Turn rope forward -- jump on toes of both feet

2. Turn rope forward -- jump on right foot

3. Turn rope forward -- jump on left foot

4. Turn rope backward -- jump on both feet

5. Turn rope backward -- jump on right foot.

6. Turn rope backward -- jump on left foot.

7. Turn rope forward -- jump first on right foot, then on left.

8. Turn rope backward -- jump first on right foot, then on left.

B. Jumping While Moving (K-6)

1. Turn rope forward -- progress forward in a run.

2. Turn rope backward -- progress backward in a run.

3. Turn rope forward -- progress forward in a skip.

4. Turn rope backward -- progress backward in a skip.

C. Stunts for the Primary Grades (K-3)

1. Turn rope forward -- hold one leg forward, knee straight, toes pointed -- jump on other foot.

2. Same as 1, but throw raised leg forward on one jump and backward on the next jump.

3. Turn rope forward -- jump with feet spread sideward.

4. Turn rope forward -- jump with one foot forward and one foot backward.

5. Turn rope forward -- rocker (one foot forward, one foot backward). Rock backward, lifting front foot as rope passes under. Rock forward, lifting back foot as rope passes under.

D. Stunts for the Intermediate Grades (4-6)

1. Turn rope forward -- Count out loud as jumping, 1-2-3-4-etc. On the odd count use an ordinary jump--on the even count cross hands in front of body, making a loop through which the child jumps.

2. Click handles of rope together or clap hands each time the rope is overhead.

3. Cradling. Swing the rope backward and forward under the feet.

4. Turn rope forward--jump and land with feet crossed, alternating the position of foot on each jump.

5. Turn rope forward - click heels together while in the air.

6. Turn rope forward -- twice on each jump. (This necessitates very fast turning.)

7. Turn rope forward -- move sideward right (or left) on each jump.

8. Grasp both ends of the rope in one hand -- assume deep-knee bend position, and swing rope in a circular path near ground or floor and jump the rope.

   a. Jump rope so it passes under both feet.
   b. Jump while balanced on right or left foot.
   c. Same as (a) and (b), except turning the rope in the opposite direction.

Individual Rope: Partners Jumping

A. Partner Stunts for Intermediate Grades (4-6)

1. No. 1 turns rope forward -- No. 2 runs in, faces his partner, and both jump.

2. Same as 1 but turn rope backward.

3. No. 1 turns rope forward, No. 2 runs in, turns his back to partner and both jump.

4. No. 1 turns rope forward, No. 2 runs in behind partner and both jump.

5. Partners stand side by side -- inside hands joined -- outside hands turning the rope.

6. No. 1 turns rope forward, No. 2 runs in, faces No. 1 and executes quarter, half, and full turns on each jump.

7. No. 1 turns rope forward, No. 2 runs in, turns back to No. 1 and bounces a ball while both jump.

8. Partners stand side by side, clasp left hands, face opposite directions, and each turns a rope in the right hand. (For one, the rope will be turning forward, for the other it will be turning backward.)

9. Same as 8 -- except clasp right hands.

10. Jumpers stand back to back and each turns a rope end in right hand.

11. Same as 10 -- except rope turned with left hands.

12. Turn rope forward -- partner runs in and jumps, clasping one ankle while jumping.

13. Partners stand side by side -- jump with inside knees raised.

14. Three partners: No. 1 turns rope forward, No. 2 runs in front, No. 3 runs in behind, and all three jump the rope together.

15. Each partner with a single rope. Jumpers face each other and jump over both ropes at the same time. (One pupil turns rope forward -- one turns backward.)

Long Rope: Two Pupils Turning

A. Primary Grades (K-3)

1. Hold rope various heights from ground -- pupils run and jump across rope.

2. Same as I except turners swing rope back and forth near ground.

3. Build a house. Rope is held a few inches above the ground. Each time all the jumpers complete a trail, the rope is raised higher.

4. Hold two ropes, shoulder width apart, about 6" above the ground. Jumpers jump first rope, then second rope. (Jump from both directions.)

5. With arms stretched sideward, turners hold rope in each hand -- the rope nearer the children is held low -- the other rope is held higher. Students jump low rope and run under high rope.

B. Intermediate Grades (4-6)

1. Run through "revolving doors." (When rope is turned forward (toward jumpers) it is called front door. When it is turned backward (away from jumpers) it is called back door.

   a. Run under rope (front door) and out opposite side without jumping.
   b. Run through front door, jump once -- run out.
   c. Run through back door, jump once -- run out.
   d. Increase to any number of jumps (front door).
   e. Increase to any number of jumps (back door).
   f. Building blocks -- first time through jump once, second time twice, etc.

g. Run in front door -- jump on one foot.
h. Run in front door -- jump on alternate foot.
i. Increase to any definite number of jumps but progress toward one end of the rope, necessitating high jumps each time (climb ladder).
j. Increase to any definite number of jumps but do 1/4, 1/2, 3/4, and full turns in the air on each jump.
k. Run in -- jump 10 counts and run out on opposite side.
l. Run in -- jump 10 counts and run out on same side entered from.
m. Touch floor with hands on every other jump.
n. Partners hold inside hands -- run in and jump as in (k) and (l).
o. Partners run in, jump back to back and both "climb ladder," each moving toward different end of rope.
p. Partners facing while jumping, change positions by passing each other on right or left side.
q. Sparrow Hop. Jump rope in deep-knee bend position.
r. Bucking Broncho. Position: On all fours -- hands clear rope first then the feet as the broncho "bucks." (facing across rope)
s. Place hands on hips, raise one leg keeping knee straight and toe pointed, then jump on the other foot.
t. Jump in air, feet forward. Touch toes with fingertips.
u. On all fours facing one turner -- jump on hands and feet. (all fours)
v. Figure Eight: Students line up behind one turner. Students run in, jump once, run out and line up behind other turner. In the meantime, the next student has entered -- and so on -- the rope is never empty. When all are through, first jumper returns and others follow. This is a continuous process and the complete pattern forms a figure eight.

2. Paired Jumpers

a. Minuet turn. Partners run in, holding inside hands. Holding hands high, one makes full turn under the arm of the other.
b. Partners run in, face each other, raise their right ankles to their partner's left hand, and each jump on his left foot.
c. Partners run in, face each other and place hands on each other's shoulders, then kick alternate legs to the side as they jump.
d. Partners pass or bounce a ball to each other. Both may be "in" rope -- or one "in" and the other "out."

Two Long Ropes: Two Turners

A. Grades 5-6

1. Double Dutch -- two ropes are turned alternately. Rope nearer the jumper is turned front door -- rope away from jumper is turned back door.

2. Double Irish -- two ropes are turned alternately, front rope being turned away from the jumpers. (Just the opposite of Double Dutch.)

2. Motor-Skill Development

Freedom of movement, vigor, and social responsiveness are hoped for results of developmental experiences in physical education. It is often the classroom teacher who provides these experiences, perhaps without the help of a specialist. There is lively fun and gaiety for children and teachers as children learn to move quickly and lightly, to carry objects effectively, to run without falling, to change direction while running, to catch and throw balls accurately, and to learn simple rhythmic games and dances. In all of these activities there must be sequential progress of the motor-skills involved. It cannot be assumed that pupils know, and can perform successfully, the skills needed for a newly introduced game.

Let us take, for example, a simple relay race which would involve skipping to the base line, then turning to run back to touch the next in line. First of all, before such a race could be run, all children would have to master the art of skipping, turning around without loss of time and running in a direct line to the waiting team member. Children must have the opportunity to learn and practice the needed ball skills before a ball game may be introduced.

In the kindergarten and first grade, children are extremely active; they are more interested in action than outcomes. They play for fun,

not scores or to decide winners. While they are creative and imaginative, they have a short interest span, so activities should be changed often in the class period. However, these same children like to play the same games again on another day. They enjoy running and jumping games, make-believe rhythm play and some individual and dual activity. Simple tag games are good, so is Crows and Cranes, Brownies and Fairies, Squirrel in Trees. Crossing the Brook is enjoyable and has some running and jumping.

A chart of games suitable for use in the different grade levels will be given shortly.

Grades Three and Four

Children in these grades are learning to cooperate with others so this is a good time to introduce relays and team games. More advanced games can be played because boys and girls have a longer attention span now and improved endurance. They want some recognition of personal skills so self-testing activities are introduced along with body mechanics, stunts, and tumbling.

Grades Five and Six

If children have had the advantages of motor skill development up till now, they have developed skills in ball-handling, body control for running, twisting, turning, and dodging and are ready for more highly organized team game activities. They enjoy competition so some tournaments can be played off in class periods. Boys need vigorous activity now and there should be some separation of boys and girls for certain advanced team games. Great variations in motor skill will be

apparent so in self-testing activities if there are sufficient numbers, grouping should be done according to abilities.

Rhythmic activities should be included at all grade levels. In the K-1-2 grades, rhythm activity such as singing games, creative movement to music, and simple folk dances should use one-third of the class-time. In the remaining elementary grades about 20 percent of the period and in the senior high school not more than 15 percent should be given to rhythmic activity. Naturally, teachers should adjust these percentages to meet the particular needs of their pupils. Square and folk dancing, social (popular) dance, and modern dance are enjoyed in grades 7 through 12. Even such old favorites as the Virginia Reel, the Irish Lilt are still danced enthusiastically along with "Dive for the Oyster, Dive for the Clam" and "Red River Valley."

The Nebraska State Department of Education, 233 South 10th Street, Lincoln, Nebraska 68501, has excellent graded material in supplemental booklets for the physical education curriculum. These titles are reprinted here by their permission. Any or all are available upon request. Exact instructions are given clearly and simply which makes the material usable by elementary classroom teachers as well as physical education instructors. The material includes:

Rope Jumping Activities for the Elementary Grades
Movement Exploration: A Discovery Approach
Ideas for Motor-Skill Development
Exercises and Games for Relaxation for the Primary Grades
Finger Plays and Story Games for the Primary Grades
Creative Movement for the Primary Grades
Balance Beam Activities for the Elementary Grades
Motor-Skills Testing in the Primary Grades (1-3)
Teaching the Forward and Backward Roll

Primary Tumbling Stunts
Teaching the Cartwheel and Handspring
Playground-Gym Floor Markings

Suggested Games

The games which are listed in the following groups have been used widely, have proved to be good, and have the advantage that they are all described in one collection. Most of them can be played indoors or out. In addition to these games the children will know others which they will suggest.

This grading of games indicates the lowest grade in which, on an average, a game is found to be suitable, its use being assumed also in any succeeding grade where the children wish to play it. All of these games may be found in Richardson's Games for Elementary School Grades.

GRADE I

Name of the Game	Type	Where It Can Be Played
*Brownies and Fairies	Tag	Playground, Gymnasium
Call Ball	Ball	Playground, Gymnasium
Cat and Mice	Tag	Schoolroom
Charlie over the Water	Tag	Playground, Gymnasium
*Crossing the Brook	Quiet	Playground, Gymnasium, Schoolroom
Dog and Bone	Quiet	Schoolroom
Drop the Handkerchief	Tag	Playground, Gymnasium
Frog in the Sea	Tag	Playground, Gymnasium
Huntsman	Running	Schoolroom
I Saw	Quiet	Playground, Gymnasium, Schoolroom
Old Mother Witch	Tag	Playground, Gymnasium
Run, Rabbit, Run	Tag	Playground, Gymnasium
Schoolroom Tag	Tag	Schoolroom
Simple Tag	Tag	Playground, Gymnasium
Slap Jack	Running	Playground, Gymnasium, Schoolroom
Squat Tag	Tag	Playground, Gymnasium
Squirrel and Nut	Tag	Schoolroom
Squirrels in Trees	Running	Playground, Gymnasium
*Teacher and Class	Ball	Playground, Gymnasium
Toss Ball	Ball	Playground, Gymnasium, Schoolroom
Who Has Gone	Quiet	Schoolroom

*Described in this book, pp. 113-114.

GRADE II

Name of Game	Type	Where It Can Be Played
Back to Back	Running	Playground, Gymnasium
Cat and Rat	Tag	Playground, Gymnasium
Change Seats	Quiet	Schoolroom
Circle Stride Ball	Ball	Playground, Gymnasium
Ducks Fly	Quiet	Schoolroom
Flowers and Wind	Tag	Playground, Gymnasium
Fox and Squirrel	Tag	Playground, Gymnasium
Gardener and Scamp	Tag	Playground, Gymnasium
Have You Seen My Sheep	Tag	Playground, Gymnasium
Hide and Seek	Hiding	Playground
Huckleberry Beanstalk	Quiet	Schoolroom
Lame Fox	Tag	Playground, Gymnasium
Midnight	Tag	Playground, Gymnasium
Partner Tag	Tag	Playground, Gymnasium
Run for Your Supper	Tag	Playground, Gymnasium
Shadow Tag	Tag	Playground
Spin the Platter	Quiet	Schoolroom
Tommy Tiddler's Ground	Tag	Playground, Gymnasium
Touch the Ball	Ball	Playground, Gymnasium
Water Sprite	Tag	Playground, Gymnasium
Who is Knocking	Quiet	Schoolroom

GRADE III

Name of Game	Type	Where It Can Be Played
Automobile Relay	Relay	Schoolroom
Ball Puss	Ball	Playground, Gymnasium
Blackboard Relay	Relay	Schoolroom
Blindman's Buff	Quiet	Playground, Gymnasium
Boiler Burst	Tag	Playground, Gymnasium
Boundary Ball	Ball Team	Playground, Gymnasium
Catch the Cane	Quiet	Playground, Gymnasium
Center Base	Ball	Playground, Gymnasium
Crows and Cranes	Tag	Playground, Gymnasium
Eraser Relay	Relay	Schoolroom
Every Man in His Own Den	Tag	Playground, Gymnasium
Exchange Tag	Tag	Schoolroom
Hill, Dill	Tag	Playground, Gymnasium
Indian Running	Quiet	Schoolroom
I Say Stoop	Quiet	Schoolroom
Japanese Tag	Tag	Playground, Gymnasium

GRADE III - continued

Name of Game	Type	Where It Can Be Played
Nose and Toes Tag	Tag	Playground, Gymnasium
Pinch-Oh!	Tag	Playground, Gymnasium
Posture Relay	Relay	Schoolroom
Posture Tag	Tag	Playground, Gymnasium
Pom-Pom-Pullaway	Tag	Playground, Gymnasium
Red Light	Running	Playground, Gymnasium, Schoolroom
Simple Dodge Ball	Ball	Playground, Gymnasium
Simple Relay	Relay	Playground, Gymnasium, Schoolroom
Still Pond	Quiet	Playground, Gymnasium
Stone	Tag	Playground, Gymnasium
Toss Up	Ball	Playground, Gymnasium
Touch Off	Tag	Playground, Gymnasium
Trades	Tag	Playground, Gymnasium
Wood Tag	Tag	Playground, Gymnasium

GRADE IV

Name of Game	Type	Where It Can Be Played
Animal Relays	Relay	Schoolroom
Beater Goes Round	Running	Playground, Gymnasium, Schoolroom
Black Tom	Tag	Playground, Gymnasium
Carry and Fetch	Relay	Playground, Gymnasium
Cross Tag	Tag	Playground, Gymnasium
Dumbbell Tag	Tag	Playground, Gymnasium
End Ball	Ball Team	Playground, Gymnasium
Four Trips	Ball Team	Playground, Gymnasium
Line Soccer	Ball Team	Playground, Gymnasium
Over and Under Relay	Relay	Schoolroom
Poison Sear	Running	Schoolroom
Prisoner's Ball	Ball Team	Playground, Gymnasium
Second Base Ball	Ball Team	Playground, Gymnasium
Simon Says	Quiet	Schoolroom
Snake Catch	Tag	Playground, Gymnasium
Team Dodge Ball	Ball Team	Playground, Gymnasium
Team Relay	Relay	Playground, Gymnasium, Schoolroom
Ten Steps	Hiding	Playground
Three Deep	Tag	Playground, Gymnasium
Two Division Dodge Ball	Ball Team	Playground, Gymnasium
Walking Relay	Relay	Playground, Gymnasium
Yards Off	Hiding	Playground

GRADES V AND VI

Name of Game	Type	Where It Can Be Played
Alley Soccer	Ball Team	Playground, Gymnasium
Bombardment	Ball Team	Playground, Gymnasium
Circle Tag	Tag	Playground, Gymnasium
Corner Ball	Ball Team	Playground, Gymnasium
Crown the King	Ball	Playground, Gymnasium
File Relay	Relay	Schoolroom
Five-Three-One	Ball, Quiet	Playground, Gymnasium
Freeze Out	Ball, Quiet	Playground, Gymnasium
Heminway Ball	Ball Team	Playground, Gymnasium
Hip	Tag	Playground, Gymnasium
Indian Club Relay	Relay	Gymnasium, Schoolroom
Jump the Shot	Quiet	Playground, Gymnasium
Keep Away	Ball Team	Playground, Gymnasium
Kick Ball	Ball Team	Playground, Gymnasium
Last Couple Out	Tag	Playground, Gymnasium
Long Ball	Ball Team	Playground, Gymnasium
Newcomb	Ball Team	Playground, Gymnasium
Over Take	Ball Team	Playground, Gymnasium
Push Ball	Relay	Schoolroom
Rescue	Relay	Schoolroom
Run, Sheep, Run	Hiding	Playground
Slip Away Tag	Tag	Playground, Gymnasium
Snatch Club	Team	Playground, Gymnasium
Stealing Sticks	Team	Playground, Gymnasium
Streets and Alleys	Tag	Playground, Gymnasium
Three Division Dodge Ball	Ball Team	Playground, Gymnasium
Zig-Zag Relay	Ball Team	Playground, Gymnasium

Playground Activities

Supervised play at recess and for part of the noon hour is not a substitute for class periods in physical education but rather a laboratory to practice skills learned in class. For this reason, responsibility for the planning of playground activities should be placed with the person in charge of physical education. It is repeated here that this is a logical arrangement since some of the objectives of both programs are the same, namely, physical development promoted through vigorous activity,

knowledge and skills for games and sports for leisure-time activity, and relaxation and change of pace from a sedentary routine.

The regular physical education teacher, if she does not have too heavy a classroom teaching load, or the teachers of the elementary grades with some help, may serve as play directors. The physical education teacher may plan for the recess period in advance and give the teacher who will be with the children a chart of activities for several weeks ahead.

Suggested Games and Play Activities for Grade I During The First Full Week of School

This week the children will play catching and throwing games, chasing-fleeing games, and jumping-hopping games. Specific games suitable for these activities include:

Catching and Throwing

Teacher and Class. (May be played on the playground or in the classroom, gymnasium or hall. A volley ball or soccer ball is necessary.)

Directions for Playing: The class is divided into two sections and forms two lines facing each other. The odd player or "teacher," as he is sometimes called, stands eight or ten feet away from the lines and tosses the ball to each player in turn who returns it to him. Any player who misses a good throw must take his place at the foot of the line. If the "teacher" misses, he goes to the foot and the child at the head becomes "teacher."

Chasing-Fleeing

Brownies and Fairies. (May be played in the gymnasium, playroom or on the playground. There is too much action for the classroom. No equipment is necessary.)

Directions for Playing: The class should be divided into two equal groups, one representing brownies, and one representing fairies. They line up on each side of the room. The fairies are blindfolded or turn their backs while the brownies softly steal toward them. When they are within 15 feet of the fairies the teacher calls, "The brownies are coming."

The fairies then chase the brownies to their goal, taking as many as they can. Those caught become fairies. The game is then repeated with the brownies blindfolded or hiding their eyes.

Jumping-Hopping

Crossing the Brook. (May be played in the gymnasium or on the playground. No equipment is necessary.)

Directions for Playing: With chalk or a stick draw two diverging lines to represent the brook, placing them about three feet apart and gradually increasing the distance to approximately four feet depending upon the size and skill of the children. The children form in single file and walk or run to the brook across which they attempt to jump. Any child who fails to jump completely across the brook is out of the game. If the group is small, he may continue to practice until he has successfully jumped the spot at which he failed. The brook may be widened to a point at which no child can jump and stones drawn in the middle of the brook on which the children may step as they cross. These should be placed in such a way that a considerable degree of skill is necessary to cross successfully.

Activities

Children should be permitted to play on the apparatus and swings for a part of a recess period. They should be given opportunity to choose games they would like to play in addition to the new games listed for the week. Children in the first grade like to play singing games, especially when there is a ring formation for playing.

The classroom teacher should confer with the physical education teacher as to progress, improvements or changes which seem to her to be desirable for her particular room.

Activities on the playground should practically all be of a physical nature with big muscle activity predominating. Younger children like to play for the moment, but interest and motivation may be developed for upper elementary grades by means of contests or tournaments. Contests may be arranged within the room, or between two rooms that

recess at the same time. Volley ball, soft ball, bat ball, even dodge ball are popular playground tournaments. Gymnastic stunts, races of all kinds, and rope jumping also keep interest stimulated.

Special events may be carried on at recess occasionally for younger children such as parades, marching, rhythm bands, treasure hunts, and hopscotch. Rope jumping for younger children, also, may be carried on from one recess to another and developed into a contest.

Physical fitness tests are adapted to any playground because of the simplicity of the equipment required. These tests are based on the fundamental activities of running, jumping, balancing and throwing, and they provide measurable standings against a goal to be achieved. Physical Fitness tests may be secured by writing the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Washington, D. C.

Recess periods should be out-of-doors as often as it is feasible, but children must be properly dressed for the weather. However, on days when it is raining or it is too muddy underfoot or is too cold, recess periods will have to be indoors. Bean bag games and rubber ring toss games provide fun and develop skill. Table games like checkers are good, so are quiet games such as Simon Says "Thumbs Up."

A playroom is useful and is easier to provide than a gymnasium because ceiling height is not so important as it is in a gymnasium. One school cleaned an old room in the basement next to the furnace room that had never been used for anything but old boxes and crates because the presence of heating pipes made its ceiling too low for ball games. At the small expense of cleaning and painting, this room was made ready for use during noon periods and recesses. Some of the

wooden crates were made into game tables with checkerboards painted on them. Other table games were donated from homes of students. Shuffleboard was painted upon the concrete floor. Blackboards were made for bean bag toss games as well as ring toss. Bean bags may be tossed into concentric circles with different point value drawn on the floor with chalk. The superintendent reported that free access to this room had reduced the number of disciplinary situations in their school.

If there is a teacher of physical education, he or she should be in charge of the playroom, although trustworthy high-school students are successfully used in some schools. All pupils using the playroom should understand that the high school student in charge is responsible for conduct as well as for the care of the equipment.

If there is no other space available, lunchrooms may sometimes be converted into recreation rooms following the lunch period. Most of the chairs may be arranged along the wall and some of the tables may be equipped for table tennis, some for quiet games. Shuffleboard can be painted on the floor, here, too. If there is supervision, relay races may be carried on.

Use of Space and Equipment

Space, equipment available, and length of play periods must be given consideration in planning playground activities.

Playground space should be so planned that the play courts offer opportunity for the greatest number to play at one time. Space should be planned for re-use by as many age groups as possible. A volley ball court may be used for dodge ball, for circle games, for simple stunts, and for relay races by team.

Playground area will have to be divided according to the space available in each local situation. Assignment of space for noon times and before and after school should be definite so that all children will understand where they are to play, just which area belongs to their particular grade. First-graders particularly should know just where they are supposed to play. Older children should not interfere with the younger children, neither should the younger children interfere with the games and activities of those who are older.

If there is apparatus on the playground, definite schedules for use should be worked out and given to each grade-room teacher who can then tell the children in her room when they can use the swings, the jungle gym, the teeter-totter, etc. Again, this scheduling should be for noon times, and before and after school, unless a number of elementary rooms recess at the same time.

Here is a suggested schedule:

	Swings Grade	Jungle Gym Grade	Teeter-Totter Grade
Monday a.m. (before school)	1	2	3
Monday p.m. (including noon)	2	3	4
Tuesday a.m.	3	4	5
Tuesday p.m.	4	5	1
Wednesday a.m.	5	1	2
Wednesday p.m., etc			

This schedule would be repeated for the last half of the week.

Providing and Supervising the Summer Playground

If there is not an eleven-month program for the entire school, summer playground activities will add a great deal to community life for children and adults. It is possible for every community to have a

summer recreation program if some enthusiastic teacher or community member is willing to accept the responsibility for it. Teachers who live in the community or college girls at home for the summer are likely prospects for leaders. Small schools are well situated to assume this program because the space and facilities needed are largely at the schools.

Either the town council or the board of education must provide the finances for this program. Many communities include summer recreation in their regular annual budgets, then work cooperatively with the schools to implement the program. If your town does not have an organized program, a vacant lot, a group of children, and a willingness to work is all that is essential for a beginning. But who can play ball without bats, bases and balls, or tennis without a court, or croquet without wickets and mallets? So equipment is needed, a place to store it is essential, and a responsible person to check it in and out, to inspect it, and to repair it are also part of the beginning.

If a swimming pool is part of the summer fun, new problems are presented in sanitation and lifeguarding. No community or school pool should ever be used without a life guard present.

All phases of play activities--games, athletics, handcraft, hiking, and kite flying--should be considered in making the plans. The leader should have the entire summer planned ahead, at least in a general way. If adult leagues in baseball and volleyball are included, scheduling with other towns must be managed.

A bulletin board is an important feature for the summer playground. Advance schedules for special events of the week and daily programs

should be posted, too. Records made by children in self-testing events, and winning teams should be announced on the bulletin board.

It is desirable to keep a record of attendance on a playground because it is one means of telling whether the program is a success. If the children come, it is successful. If they do not come, the play leader should revise the plans.

Daytime activities for elementary age children need to be carefully planned to sustain interest. A list follows to show how varied a program may be. A leader may find something in the list which could be used in addition to regular plays and games.

Miscellaneous

- Hiking
- Kite flying
- Playground circus

Parades

- Costume
- Doll buggy
- Bicycle

Shows

- Cat (pets)
- Doll
- Flower
- Hobby

Tournaments

- Baseball
- Softball
- Volley ball
- Dodge ball
- Croquet
- Checkers
- Hopscotch
- Marbles
- Tennis
- Golf
- Jackstraws

Handcraft

- Basketry
- Model aircraft
- Puppetry
- Sand and soap modeling
- Whittling
- Leather work

Musical Activities

- Folk dancing
- Harmonica band
- Rhythm band

Contests

- Apparatus
- Archery
- Pushmobile
- Rollerskating
- Soap bubble
- Stilts
- Stunts (individual & dual)

A daily plan should encourage the children to take part in a wide variety of activities. Necessarily, a daily program must be flexible according to weather, local celebrations, and other factors. A daily plan may be something like this.

9:00-10:00	Free play. Sand modeling. Apparatus work. Softball league for boys. Playing off of scheduled tournament games.
10:00-11:00	Low organization games such as dodge ball, liberty bat ball, bombardment, stealing sticks, tin can alley, etc. Tumbling and stunt work, folk dancing, scheduled tournament games.
11:00-12:00	Practice for league games tournament. Work on physical fitness tests. Track and field events. Learn new games and practice for special events.
1:00-2:30	Handcraft. Quiet games such as checkers, jacks, croquet, sand play, storytelling, music and dramatic activities.
2:30-4:00	Special events such as doll shows, pet shows, hop scotch, or other events in list of activities previously mentioned. Pass physical fitness tests. Play off tournament games. Swimming.
4:00-5:00	Free play. Low organization games and activities. Croquet and other tournament games.

Evening hours should be given over to adult recreation according to the interests and desires of the community.

Class Procedures and Activities for High School Students

The major shift in emphasis for physical education in high schools has been the addition of individualized instruction and self-evaluation in all areas of physical education and the inclusion of inter-school athletic competition for girls. The girls' inter-school competition in most schools is volley ball (during the football season for boys), basketball,

and some track and field events. In the schools with pools, inter-school swimming meets on district and state levels are being held.

In the "New Physical Education Program" students are able to progress through the learning of new skills at their own pace with study and practice. *

In general, the program for small high schools, like large high schools, should be broad enough to achieve the objectives begun in the elementary grades. Individual sports (archery, gymnastics) and dual sports (tennis, badminton, etc.) should be included for their carry-over value as well as for immediate exercise and learning. Interest in athletic competition is high at this age and team sports hold the spotlight at school and in the community so football, volley ball, basket ball, track and field events, soccer, and hockey should be offered in classes.

Dance, in one form or another has survived as an activity throughout the ages for the feeling of physical well-being and satisfaction it brings to the individual, either alone, with a partner, or a group. So square and round dances, modern and popular social dancing should be a part of the program. Dance is one of the coeducational offerings that is so important.

Body mechanics and gymnastics for boys and girls; football, wrestling, and basket ball for boys, tennis, golf, volley ball,and track and field either as separate activities or for boys and girls combined

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*If your school is interested in this class-time procedure, send for No. 12, Physical Education Curriculum Guide Supplement, "Individualizing Instruction in Physical Education." Nebraska State Department of Education, 233 South 10th St., Lincoln, Nebraska 68501.

complete a broad curricular offering. The choice of activities will be influenced by such factors as the amount of space available, the funds in the budget for the purchase of equipment, the facilities available in the community for continuation of activities in after-school life, and local climatic conditions. If there is no golf course in the community, or nearby, teaching golf is not a wise curricular choice. But if there is active interest in baseball leagues for boys, girls, men and women, baseball skills such as throwing, catching, base-running, and batting certainly should be part of class procedures. If your school is interested in this class-time procedure, it is included in the Physical Education Curriculum Guide Supplement,"Individualizing Instruction in Physical Education," Nebraska State Department of Education, referred to on page 121.

Body mechanics is the usual term used to describe the movable parts of the body in the everyday activities of standing, sitting, walking, lifting, and stair and hill climbing--activities all persons engage in. It is possible to learn to use one's body efficiently in all of these activities. Running, jumping, skating, picking up and carrying articles, pushing and pulling, reaching overhead are made easier by proper use of the right muscles.

A program in body mechanics includes exercise and movement in order for the individual to recognize by feeling it just what is good body alignment. Use of a long mirror is helpful; it is easier for some to recognize good and bad by sight at first. Exercises should be used to increase flexibility, and the tone of important muscles in head and neck,

upper back and chest, abdomen and lower back. There should be discussion and practice along the lines of the everyday movements mentioned earlier.

Physical Examinations

The small schools visited in preparation of this chapter all had the same policy concerning physical examinations. No examinations are given at school. For those in athletic competition forms are brought back to school by students after examination by their own doctors. Parents' signatures are the permit to participate in inter-school athletics that should be required. It is interesting to note that in one school which had fifty-three students in the six-year high school, every boy and girl in the upper four grades was on a varsity team so every senior high school student has had a physical examination.

Requirements

Usually physical education class work is required of all through the 10th grade with the 11th and 12th grade work elective. Two and three hours a week are customary, with three hours a better choice. In a very small school like the one mentioned earlier, all girls from grades 9-12 can meet together by planning the work in three-year units to avoid repetition. (Boys can meet together in the same way.)

An outline of activities for a four-year high school, classes meeting two or three times weekly, is presented in Table I. It is offered as a point of departure; no teacher should follow it without considering the needs of the local situation.

Table I is arranged in four parts, each part representing an outline of activities for one year. If the seventh and eighth grade girls

are combined in one class and the upper four years in two other classes, care must be taken to avoid unnecessary repetition. This can partially be accomplished by following the plan below:

Teach to	First Year the Program Operates	Second Year	Third Year	Fourth Year	Succeeding Years
Freshmen and Sophomores	Part A	Part B	Part A	Part B	Continue alternating A and B
Juniors and Seniors	Part C	Part D	Part C	Part D	Continue alternating C and D

Most of the activities need to be repeated, some several times, with the content within the activity increasing in difficulty. This is particularly true in situations where the time allotment is short, and where the majority of students will have had little or no physical education in the elementary grades.

Costumes. The majority of schools do not require special costumes except that tennis shoes must be worn. Shorts and shirt tops which students already own are acceptable for both boys and girls. A regulation color and style of shorts and tops add to the class somewhat and does not make too great an expense because the same clothing can be worn elsewhere later.

Faculty. Ideally, there should be women instructors for the girls and men instructors for the boys. If this is not feasible, a man who is also the coach is usually hired in small schools. However, if there

TABLE I

Outline of Physical Education Class Activities for Girls, Six-Year High School, Classes Meeting Two or Three Times Weekly

PART A			PART B		
Season	Activities	Approx No. of Weeks	Season	Activities	Approx No. of Weeks
rly Fall tdoors)	Line Soccer and Alley Soccer	6 to 7 weeks	Early Fall (outdoors)	Simplified	6 to 7 weeks
te Fall doors)	*Recreational Sports	4 to 5 weeks	Late Fall (indoors)	*Recreational Sports	3 to 5 weeks
anksgiving o Christmas doors)	Body Mechanics	3 to 4 weeks	Early Winter (indoors)	Volley Ball	6 to 7 weeks
nter doors)	Basketball	7 to 8 weeks	Winter (indoors)	Basketball	6 to 7 weeks
nter doors)	*Social Dancing	4 to 5 weeks	Winter (indoors)	*Social Dancing	3 to 4 weeks
ring tdoors)	Softball	6 to 7 weeks	Spring (outdoors)	Softball	6 to 7 weeks
		30 to 36 wks			30 to 36 wks

PART C			PART D		
Season	Activities	Approx No. of Weeks	Season	Activities	Approx No. of Weeks
rly Fall tdoors)	Speedball	6 to 7 weeks	Early Fall (outdoors)	Speedball	6 to 7 weeks
te Fall doors)	*Recreational Sports	3 to 4 weeks	Late Fall (indoors)	*American Rhythms	5 to 6 weeks
anksgiving o Christmas	Body Mechanics	3 to 4 weeks	Thanksgiving to Christmas	*Recreational Sports	3 to 4 weeks
nter doors)	Basketball	5 to 6 weeks	Winter (indoors)	Basketball	5 to 6 weeks
nter doors)	Volley Ball *American Rhythms	3 to 4 weeks 4 weeks	Winter (indoors)	*Volley Ball	5 to 6 weeks
ring tdoors)	Softball	6 to 7 weeks	Spring (outdoors)	Softball	6 to 7 weeks
		30 to 36 wks			30 to 36 wks

*If possible, corecreational.

is physical education in the elementary school as well as in the high school, a woman teacher's time can be well-filled in all but the smallest schools.

A teacher shared by two or more schools is a desirable means of securing a woman physical education instructor. Two neighboring towns can share the instructor's services whether by one school using her each morning and the other in the afternoon, or by alternate days: Monday, Wednesday in one school; Tuesday and Thursday in the other. Fridays may be alternated and used for special coeducational classes. This latter plan is preferable for several reasons: first, there is less driving involved; and, second, each school has two afternoons each week for after school intra-murals and a designated time for coeducational recreation.

Locker and Dressing Room Facilities

The space given for dressing and locker rooms should be as generous as possible to speed up dressing time allotment. Wire basket-type lockers have been popular because they are compact, well ventilated, take up the least space. Ordinary market baskets can be used if it is not possible to buy something of a more permanent nature. Tier and box lockers are also used.

One new school has excellent locker room facilities, in which the tier lockers for gym classes are painted a different color for each class. Beside each tier is a tall locker for hanging street clothes of the person currently using a tier. Every member of the sophomore class, for example, would be using a green locker.

A storage rack with numbers on the baskets may be kept on one side of the room. Each girl may remove her own basket as she passes by. All gym clothes should have prominent markings of the owner's full name so pilfering is reduced to a minimum and no locks are required. The locker room should always be locked when not in use. A similar arrangement will serve for the boys.

If the girls' dressing room is to be used for visiting teams, locks on the lockers are an absolute necessity. If the shelves are spaced so that the wire baskets fit fairly snugly, all that is necessary is a metal bar running halfway between the shelves and parallel to them, and padlocked at one end. If the baskets are arranged on shelves according to classes, the teacher need only unlock the bars for the particular class that is meeting at the time. Another plan sometimes used is to close off each two tiers of baskets with a heavy wire door which may be kept padlocked except when the baskets are in use.

If tier or box lockers are already installed, a bar lock arrangement can be provided. If individual padlocks are used, combination locks with keyholes for a master key are convenient; they are, however, somewhat more expensive.

A hook strip at suitable height, or a clothes rack for street clothes will be necessary when baskets are used since they are not a satisfactory place for girls to store their street clothes while they are in the gymnasium. A hook strip (a board attached to the wall on which clothes hooks are fastened) takes up the least space, is inexpensive, and is completely satisfactory if the locker room is kept locked while the class is in the gymnasium or on the field. If desired, and the school

wishes to make the expenditure, the girls may keep their street clothes in regular metal lockers during the physical education period. The school, in that case, should provide as many lockers of this type as there are girls in the largest group that will participate at any one time, or at any rate, one locker for every two girls.

Dressing rooms should be provided with wash bowls and at least two mirrors which should be attached to the walls to avoid theft. Short benches should also be provided in the dressing room.

Shower and Sanitary Provisions. Health standards must be maintained in providing satisfactory toilet facilities. School authorities recommend a minimum of six toilets and two lavatories for every 100 girls in the school. For boys, there should be four toilets and four urinals. There should always be at least one toilet in every shower room. There must be water for washing purposes and paper towels. There should also be a sanitary drinking water supply in clean bubblers with continuous flow.

Gang or group showers are used extensively because they save space and money, but it is recommended that one or two individual showers be provided for girls, and made available to those girls desiring privacy. Shower heads should be placed at average shoulder height. Shower rooms must be kept clean and attractive. The taking of showers should be on an elective basis, but the habit should be encouraged.

The most satisfactory arrangement is for the schools to provide towels with laundry service. If there is no commercial laundry service available, two towels may be purchased for each student and

and washer and dryers installed at the school. The custodian, or a high school girl,can have the opportunity to earn extra money by laundering and folding the towels. They must be washed in very hot water, with adequate detergent to insure cleanliness.

Towels should be kept in a locker; the instructor or student assistant should unlock the locker and hand out the towels, then see that each one is checked back into the laundry basket at the close of the period. Damp towels should never be placed in lockers. If a school is forced through lack of finances to ask students to bring their own towels from home, a clothesline for drying them must be hung and all towels must be worked plainly with the owner's name and kept laundered by the student.

Policy Regarding Menstrual Period

There is no ascertained reason why girls should not take part in moderate games and rhythm work during the menstrual period. In years past, participation in competitive sports during the first two days of the period was not looked upon favorably by many. Other authorities advise that the average girl should be able to participate in all her usual activities at this time and be better off for the participation. However, girls should not be forced to participate in physical education activities if they ask to be excused. There are alternatives.

A decision must be made as to what to do with girls who are not participating in the regular activity of the class. There are several possible solutions: (a) The girls may be sent to the library or study hall, but this has the drawback, oftentimes, of causing embarrassment

to the girls if they appear at regular intervals at the study hall instead of at the gym. Then some girls soon learn to take one or two periods a month for study, regardless of their actual need. (b) If the girl needs rest, she may be assigned to the health room for a nap during the physical education period. Most high school girls need more sleep and rest than they get, so this solution is healthful. (c) It is sometimes possible to use girls as assistants during the first two days of the menstrual period. This is the best solution in that they are actually participating in the class and gain from explanations of new procedures and techniques. They may be assigned responsibility for balls or other equipment, or they may serve as linesmen, base umpires, and scorekeepers. It is a poor idea to excuse girls from active class participation and then permit them to stand around visiting and perhaps interfering with the class, or sitting listlessly on the damp ground.

Interpreting the Physical Education Program to the Community

In times of financial strain and in the continuing efforts to evaluate and reorganize the work of the public schools the subjects least understood (or most expensive) are most apt to be eliminated. School patrons will not support a program about which they are uncertain as to its goals and accomplishments. School patrons include all groups in the community from business men, young workers without children, elderly taxpayers whose children have long ago passed through the schools, to parents whose children make up the present school population.

Public relations between school and community is an art which has

developed various methods of gaining public understanding. Some of the methods best suited for publicity in the field of physical education and athletics include:

1. Newspaper stories - Local newspapers, or if none, county newspapers welcome news that contains names and activities of local people. Parents are interested in seeing their children's names favorably reported. Parents are also interested in reading articles discussing activities which affect their children. For instance, if the local school wants to establish inter-school athletic competition for girls, parents of girls will read about the plan. The problem of finances, schedules, physical examinations, travel, and appropriate costumes should be presented in a series of articles explaining the benefits of such a program, etc.

   If the third grade puts on a health play, even though it is for their own room, write it up for the papers, giving the names of all children in it, or who helped get it ready. The authors watched just such a play on a local TV newscast recently.

   Straight news stories, i. e. accounts of athletic contests and tournament games are important. Announcements of contests to come should be in the paper. Feature and human interest stories of physical handicaps overcome make good copy.

   Some hints on newspaper copy: (a) The information must be accurate, (b) the article must be brief yet contain all the facts, (c) use names whenever possible, (d) arrange details

in order of importance so if the article is cut to fit newspaper space, the essential elements will be there.

2. School publications - Every school has a newsheet even though it is but a single mimeographed page. Accounts of games and sports among rooms and individuals are usually written for the newsheet by students themselves, making the reports of added interest to parents.

   Handbills - printed, mimeographed, or Xeroxed copies of announcements of upcoming events in the physical education department are excellent media for publicity. The handbill reproduced here filled the bleachers of the gym and produced a "standing room only" situation. The Czech background of this community was woven into a colorful pageant using all the elementary grade children as well as high school students in physical activity which goes along with frontier life. As you can see from the handbill, which was circulated through the county, other departments were involved in the production.

3. Letters to parents explaining new steps or changes to be made in the program: (a) Letters should be sent when a request is made that students have specific costumes for class. (b) Letters can invite parents to inspect dressing and shower room facilities. An example of an actual ingenious method of cultivating parents interest is given on the following page--Smiley Report.

4. Brief, informal demonstrations of different phases of physical education work by small student groups can be done at PTA meetings,

"The Wilber Story"

Centennial Pageant

Sat. Apr. 14 – 7:30

by

Physical Education Czech Class

at

Wilber Clatonia Hi. Sch. Gym

$1.00 adults
.50 students

History
Verse
Dances
Songs
Music

SMILEY REPORT

To the Parents of _____:

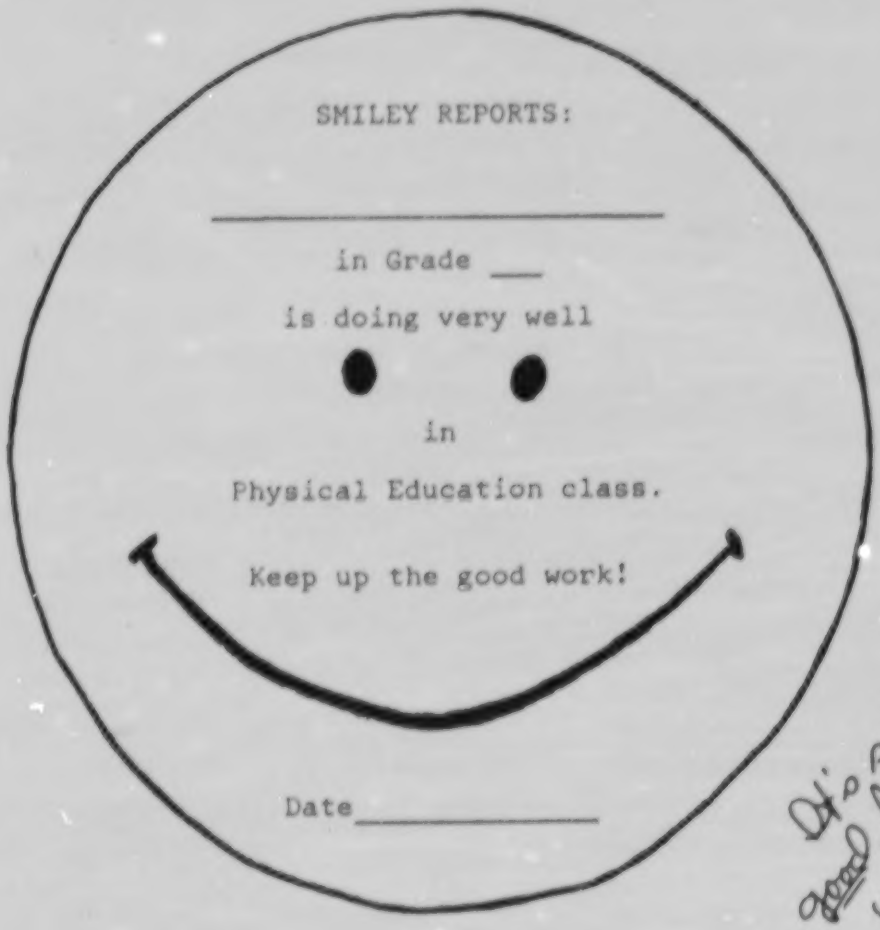
Too often, it seems, the parent is notified only when the student creates a problem in class, while the children that eagerly participate and are willing to learn and follow instructions go seemingly unrewarded.

This report along with a satisfactory grade on the quarterly report card has been worked for and earned. It comes to inform you that your son/daughter is doing exceptionally well in Physical Education class at this time and is making a positive contribution to the total atmosphere of the classroom. Hopefully each and every student (Grades 1-4) will be able to bring at least one home sometime during this school year.

If you ever have a spare moment, do come in to observe a class and see how proudly each small feat is accomplished.

"Smiley" may be cut out and proudly displayed.

Mrs. Pat Schelstraete
Physical Education Instructor



It's surprising how many good kids you find when you look!

church groups, mother's club, and civic groups. These demonstrations should be informal, no stage settings, no costuming. Rope jumping, folk dances, or any regular class work are all excellent.

5. Talks by superintendent and teacher - Many organized clubs are looking for live public issues to support, so an invitation is an opportunity to tell of the work being done and what is hoped for in the future. Combining the talk with a brief demonstration, or with students telling what they are looking forward to is excellent. Talk to taxpayers leagues, farmer cooperative associations, and women's business and professional leagues in addition to those mentioned earlier.
6. Health posters and exhibits made by pupils displayed throughout the building during the year. The cooperation of the art teacher should be enlisted.
7. Films, film strips, and slides - Write to the department of physical education at any major university or to the audio-visual center of the university and ask about films concerning sports, athletic heroes, motor development, dual sport techniques, and rhythmic activity. Usually these may be borrowed or rented for a small fee, and shown at school programs, or to supplement a talk given by the superintendent or teacher.

Needless to say, the best possible public relations are the persons themselves who are involved.

Teachers, both men and women, should be individuals who are respected for their sportsmanship and for genuine interest in their

students' welfare. They should be enthusiastic about adult recreation and encourage adults in the community to "come out and play."

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Tells how to set up physical activity programs for after-school hours, including content suggestions and administrative details.

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Separate guides containing official rules for the sport and for officiating as well as articles of interest to players and teachers. Guides: All girls'/women's sports.

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A statement designed to help in interpreting the field to colleagues in other disciplines, parents, and interested laymen of the community.

CHAPTER VIII

GUIDANCE IN SMALL SCHOOLS

Counseling and guidance have the same purposes in small as in large schools. However, the literature of this field is generally directed to schools of large enrollment, making adaptations of the staff and facilities of the small school somewhat difficult or at least not obvious. The lack of literature concerning guidance and counseling in small schools has tended to lead either to an unnecessarily complex, and hence expensive, organization in the small school, or a neglect of this phase of the school's program on the assumption that its goals are beyond reach.

This chapter deals specifically with guidance and counseling in the small school. The recommendations made will take account of the advantages the small school possesses as well as the adaptations that must be made due to the smaller staff and simpler organization.

Why Counseling and Guidance Are So Important

Briefly reviewed, here are the situations which make counseling and guidance so important. First, there is the variety of vocational goals in the world today toward which individuals may work. Benjamin Franklin's father is said to have taken him, as a boy, about their home town and in a half day pointed out and discussed all the possible vocations that were then open to young men. Of course, Ben, as an adult, went far beyond those possibilities and carved out a life work he could not have dreamed of when he was a boy. Today, there are thousands of

vocations to start with, and new ones are developing so rapidly that one cannot keep up with their possibilities. If boys and girls were as much alike as minted copper pennies or as peas in a pod, which of course they are not, guidance would still be necessary to channel their interests into possible placement. There is an enormous range of possible goals, and also the individuals who are to attempt to achieve these goals are different. Those differences have significance in helping determine the choices that should be sought by the individual. Faced with this baffling complexity and interrelationship of life objectives and individual differences, the school is obligated, first, to set up a plan of guidance that will help determine how those who have particular abilities and interests may best be brought face-to-face with suitable opportunities. Second, the school must develop and provide a curriculum that will help each individual, no matter what his talents and interests, to achieve his possibilities. It is by the use of independent study which has been shown in Chapter IV to be the basis for eliminating any curricular handicaps the small high school would otherwise face, that full equality is realized.

This brief statement of the objectives of a guidance program throws further light on the inadequate progress in guidance and counseling that exists in many small schools. To many administrators, the task has seemed to be so large as to be impossible of attainment with the apparently limited resources that are available.

Educational and Vocational Opportunities Available Today

Accepting the nature and scope of guidance and counseling just described, the school has four major steps to take. First, it must

reveal, in an over-all way, those educational and vocational opportunities which are open to men and women today and which will likely continue to be open during the foreseeable future. Only by doing this can we provide the pupil with an intelligent basis for a beginning toward the shaping of an educational program in order to achieve his future goal. In revealing these opportunities, we must not glorify any particular type of occupation. This caution is apropos here because educators may tend to portray the advantages of a few professions or vocations and underrate or give too little attention to other important vocations in which many people are happy and successful.

There should preferably be a general survey of the world of work in the ninth grade, provided for in an organized orientation and guidance course. This survey should be carried out by means of reading; also with the aid of motion and still pictures; trips to points of interest, vocationally; and talks, either recorded or in person, given by individuals who are competent to describe particular fields of work. Among the facts about different vocations which should be known is the extent of demand for each particular type of work. In giving information to pupils concerning the world of work before them, small schools clearly have many means at their disposal.

Some specialists in guidance tend to favor delaying the study of vocations until the tenth grade or later. The advantage of the general survey of vocations at the ninth grade level is that those who do not plan to go beyond high school will have the opportunity to receive needed vocational training before their schooling is terminated with high school graduation. With only three years at the most after the ninth grade in

which to shape their educational programs toward their vocational intentions. they are really not hurrying their thinking any more than the person expecting to graduate from college who delays his decision as to a vocation or profession until the end of the first year in college. Then, too, a ninth grade orientation and guidance course gives the boy or girl an enlarged vision as well as the opportunity to begin to decide upon his or her career. The final decision may be delayed one or even a number of years.

This possible delay in the making of the final decision means that the facilities for providing vocational information used in the freshman year should be continued during the high school years that follow. In these later years, teachers in the various classes can assist the pupils in noting the vocational implications of the various aspects of their class work and encourage them to continue their reading along these lines.

If we do not bring to all the pupils of our schools knowledge of vocational opportunities available today and on the horizon for the future, we are failing in the democratic ideal, "Equality of opportunity for all," to which we give lip service so freely. Knowledge will lead, we hope at least to an adequate meeting of America's need for workers and to satisfaction on the part of those who enter vocational life. Although the organized program of giving information may begin in the ninth grade with the orientation and guidance course, information about the world of work provided by the school should begin with the first grade and continue through high school.

The small school is not handicapped in this first stage of the guidance program--that of providing occupational information. The

orientation course may be offered two or three days a week. Books, trips, talks, and pictures are available to the small school as well as to the large. Senior sneak day is an institution in many schools. There may well be other "sneak" days each year to transport numbers of pupils by school bus to places that will be of interest and value to them. Newspaper plants, candy factories, milling operations, sugar refineries, points of historical interest, dam and irrigation projects are possibilities.

We Must Know the Youth

As the second phase of the guidance program, which really begins early in the child's life, teachers must come really to know the youth with whom they are working. The school always has a record of their names, ages, achievement and grade placement. One advantage of small schools is that these and other similar facts can become known to interested faculty almost immediately. They may see the pupil not in one class, but in several, and they may work with him in co-curricular activities, as well. However, this information that so commonly comes to the teacher's attention is not enough. For example, teachers should also know what the home is like. It is possible for an instructor, unless he maintains liaison with the home, to be mistaken as to the nature of the out-of-school life of the pupil. The authors have in mind particularly a well-dressed boy in a Nebraska school who seemingly had a superior home environment; in the same grade, in that same school, a girl who was very plainly dressed and seemingly came from a seriously underprivileged home. The authors and the

superintendent of schools visited the home of what seemed to be the privileged boy. Evident almost at once was a lack of harmony between the father and the mother as to what this boy should do. The father wanted him to be a bookkeeper, and the mother wanted him to be a physician. This conflict in point of view, due in part to disagreement as to the talent of the boy and in part to an incompatibility of husband and wife, was a source of irritation and unhappiness.

The visitors went that same afternoon to the home of the girl who seemingly was underprivileged and found there close relationships between parents and children and among the children themselves. Everyone seemed to assume his or her responsibility, helping with the housework and doing useful tasks. There was at least one less barrier to successful vocational choice than in the home where the parents were at odds. Until the home is known we have no concept of the implications of that home life for the pupil's educational program. If the attitudes and desires of the home are not understood, we are certainly less sure that we are providing a satisfactory educational program for him.

Then, too, the basic abilities of the child must be comprehended, not just those abilities which may be demonstrated at school. Using another illustration from a community a hundred miles distant, the visitors went to the home of a girl who was doing well in high school as a junior, but had revealed no outstanding interests to the teachers. After visiting for a short time, the mother suggested that this girl bring from her room some clever drawings that she had made during spare hours. Genuine artistic talent uncultivated by the school was discovered during the course of this brief visit. Also, in this community, a boy was taking

the typical academic subjects because there was no other course available to him. A conversation with him revealed that he was deeply interested in stock raising, and working through the 4-H club he had won seven prizes in Nebraska and Kansas. He had firmly made up his mind that stock raising was to be his career. In spite of this fact, the school, not taking into account the boy's 4-H activities, had made an insufficient attempt to adjust its curriculum to his needs and to help him prepare for his life work. Not far away there was also a boy who came to his senior year apparently without anyone in the school knowing that he had been spending his summers working in a New Mexico pharmacy and that he fully intended to become a druggist. The reader may have heard of the old-time famous Chatauqua lecture entitled, "Acres of Diamonds." Anyone engaged in school work has before him the opportunity to harvest, as it were, acres of diamonds in his own school. Once one starts harvesting or mining--choose the comparison that seems more appropriate--he is surprised at the amount, the value, and interesting nature of the information that is disclosed. Naturally, a plan must be devised for securing such information as economically as possible. Then the information must be put to work.

Some years ago, one of the authors knew a superintendent who carried with him what he called his "To Do" book. He would refer to that book in such a casual way that his friends did not at first know just what he was jotting down in it. The fact was that he carried around a little notebook which had at the top the words, "To Do" and once he wrote something in this book it was pretty sure to be done. Each educator should

have his own "To Do" book and he should jot down in it, among other matters, important guidance information about the boys and girls in the school.

Educators should not rely on their all too commonly followed plan of placing major dependence upon the so-called permanent record with which schools have been equipped for many years. This form does have value for keeping, as its name implies, a permanent record of each boy and girl. But that is not all the live personal information which is needed for guidance today. Possessing adequate record forms is certainly an important step. The information to be obtained is not exactly a casual responsibility. Some of the information can be secured by giving group tests of achievement or basic intelligence. For difficult problem cases, it will possibly be necessary to obtain the assistance of a clinic. One is usually located at the state university or in some other institution of higher learning such as a state college or private university. Some of the information can be secured from the pupil himself, some from the teachers, and some from home visitation. If a systematic plan is worked out by the school, the time needed to acquire and record all this information is not great. It will certainly be no greater than the time that is often spent in scheduling inter-school sports events.

Use Must Be Made of Known Facts

Schools must make use of the facts that are accumulated about the boys and girls, otherwise no guidance occurs. Use involves, in the first place, interpretation of those facts, and that requires competence. As an aid in interpretation, one can be aided by policies which will be at

least reasonably satisfactory guides in extending assistance. For example, here is a policy which involves the use of previous grades earned:

> The grades earned in previous related work or in elementary work of the same type should have considerable weight in determining whether the pupil had best enroll in a certain subject or course.

The question as to the cause of previous failure or low grades must, of course, be discovered before these grades can be wisely interpreted. Illness, home problems, love affairs, and personality conflicts enter in here.

Other policies of a similar type will serve as reasonable guides in counseling, subject, needless to say, to the continual use of common sense. But even with the aid of well-established policies, counseling is such an important and highly professional task that only those who are specially trained can hope to do the whole job. Cooperative endeavor is usually necessary. As has been suggested, some state center, the state university, for example, should enter into a cooperative relationship with as many schools as wish to affiliate. The local school, following agreed-upon guidelines, would collect the information needed to complete the record to which reference was earlier made, and the school would also make a preliminary evaluation of the data obtained. The state-wide cooperative center would then assist by checking the school's evaluation and diagnosis of the facts recorded, and, finally, make specific suggestions as to what the school should do to adapt its work to the pupil concerned.

Adaptation may be in the nature of adjustments made within classes

for which the pupil is already registered or is to register. It may be in the nature of adjustment in co-curricular or out-of-school activities. Often the adjustment will consist in the selection of the courses needed to meet the special situation that exists.

In the section dealing with "Shared services" reference is made to the use of a skilled counselor by two or more schools. The availability of an individual with such specialized training would obviously lessen the need for dependence on some state agency in obtaining expert service.

The authors, would not lead anyone to believe that diagnosis can be made with the same certainty as in medicine. Intangible factors and also the wishes and interests of the parents and the pupil who is being counseled all play too large a part to permit dictation by the adviser. The adviser is what the name implies, one who assists the pupil in coming to his own decisions.

Even though the advisory service of the school cannot be carried on with the same certainty as diagnosis is made by the physician, the pupil data the school has in its possession should be treated in the same professional, confidential way as is the personal history that is known by the doctor. Advisers have in their hands facts about boys and girls which should be used for promoting their welfare and for that purpose only--never for interesting conversation.

What The School Can Do Curriculum-wise

Interpretation of data and counseling on the basis of that interpretation by no means complete the process. The conclusions arrived at must be acted upon. Such action generally involves either adaptation

within the subject or a decision as to the choice of subjects. Given a sufficiently flexible teaching method, it should be possible for the local school to provide whatever adaptation is necessary within the class. Accepted methods of instruction make such adaptations feasible. For example, individualization of instruction and in-class grouping all simplify the problem of providing for individual differences within classes. When it comes to providing a choice of subjects, however, the school may not be in a position to act alone. In fact, there is probably no school in the country, let alone a small school, that can, without assistance, provide all educational experiences expressed in terms of courses that are needed. The constants or core curriculum should, of course, occupy a large part of the school time of every pupil. This leaves of the electives, say 25 percent of the total work taken. Those electives must either be furnished through locally taught classes or by other means. The most feasible technique available for supplying some of these courses may be independent study by correspondence.

Independent Study

Independent study already discussed in Chapter IV, is like regular correspondence study in that courses are prepared and the students' papers are corrected and returned to them by a correspondence school or by a university extension division. It is unlike other correspondence study in that the work of the pupil is usually supervised by a regularly employed teacher in some high school, or less frequently, in an elementary school, and on rare occasions by someone outside the school who is not a regular instructor. The elements added are supervision

and the making of independent study a part of the regular school program. There are hundreds of courses in any subject area available to any school that desires to make use of them. These courses will not be prepared in every case by the state center nearest the high school. Some courses will probably be developed at other centers, and some in proprietary correspondence schools.

It is evident, then, that the state or regional coordinating agency or agencies should be in a position to provide assistance that may be used as the individual school decides. Such assistance may be helping in the evaluation of the individual pupil data that has been obtained and also in providing courses which put into effect the conclusions that are reached. Thus, to each high school there is usually available, at moderate cost, equal opportunity to obtain adequate courses. The small school should find it feasible to provide the supervision needed within the school at a cost that is reasonable.

Integration of School and Community Effort Necessary

As the fourth and final element, an adequate guidance program usually includes a close relationship of the school with the community. Such a relationship will include finding a way to carry on what we often call cooperative education, that is, an educational program in which the theoretical or pencil-and-paper side is given in the school and the practical application carried out in the home, or on the farm, or in some industry or activity in the community. Such a cooperative relationship of home or community may lengthen the period of schooling by mingling formal education with productive labor. Could any situation

be more desirable in a nation which must always be on the alert to make available productive work for its high school graduates, and to a school staff that is struggling with the problem of providing worthwhile work for those who are not academically minded.

Proper integration of the work of the school with the community may also mean assisting in placement of the graduate in the community's stream of productive activity, provided the graduate is not going on into higher education, or if productive work is not obtained elsewhere.

Before carrying out placement assistance educators must determine what vocational opportunities are offered in their community. Leaders all know that natural economic forces play a very important part in the life of any community. It is reasonable to suggest, therefore, that schools conduct economic surveys of their communities,possibly with the assistance of the state coordinating agency to which reference has earlier been made. A university has departments of economics, geography, and other areas that could, and probably would, cooperate in conducting such surveys which would reveal to each community its future economic possibilities and limitations. With the facts at hand, the graduate can be helped to seek a livelihood in an area in which there is promise of success. Thus the school will serve in building up the community by making the citizens more conscious of the opportunities they have and by training the students in its school for successful work and leadership in that community.

This is not a Utopian dream. If schools ignore the economic and vocational possibilities of the communities in which they are located, they are unconsciously working for the decay of the community that

gives them sustenance. There are many schools that in ten years graduate half as many young men and women as the entire population in the community. At present these young people leave school all too often with neither the knowledge nor the desire needed to upbuild or maintain their community. They go elsewhere. With its young blood gone, the town slowly dies. Intelligently directed, some of this potentially competent leadership might have remained and thrived, with satisfaction to all concerned. Too many high schools ignore local community needs. They train their pupils along a pattern which literally guides them out of the environment in which they have grown to young manhood and womanhood. This needless sapping of community vitality cannot be continued for long without serious damage.

No Needs Should Be Overlooked

It may seem that to this point those who are expecting to go to college have been neglected. Actually, preparation for college does not differ greatly from preparation for a vocation or profession. The same type of guidance is necessary. As soon as a pupil, with guidance service assisting, definitely decides to go to college, the institutions he is considering entering should be identified. It is then the duty of the school to assist in determining the entrance requirements of those colleges so that the boy or girl will be aware of what is required.

Perhaps it has seemed, too, that preparation for vocations not represented in the community has been neglected. Here again the problem is not different from the young man or woman who expects to remain in the community. It is just as necessary that the student

have the facts before him and that the school have the facts about the student so he may be counseled intelligently. Placement and follow-up may be a little more difficult, but they are just as necessary and as feasible as when the career of the young person is found in the local community. The fact that young people are being trained for vocational life outside the community should challenge educators to learn of the opportunities available for vocational careers wherever these careers may lie. School officials should be aware, as far as possible, of vocational opportunities the nation over.

This chapter has dealt with the small school and its guidance program. There is no reason to feel that the small school is working under a handicap. Private schools often place great emphasis on the fact that they are small and give personal attention to the student. Some of the largest high schools are now seeking to secure the advantages of smaller schools by subdividing into a number of more or less independent schools, each with its own principal.

Although the small school may be operating under certain handicaps, it has important advantages, too. For example, too much importance cannot be attached to the value that comes or can come from knowing a boy or girl from kindergarten on, and in many types of activity. Moreover, living and working in a small community can make one feel very close to that community. In the small community, the community, as a whole, can work with the school, and the school in turn can help the community. It is this close relationship of the school and the community that makes cooperation in adjusting the child to vocational and civic life so fruitful. We do not always fully appreciate

the importance of that opportunity. Many have felt that the small school has been handicapped in guidance because it has lacked the broad curriculum or because it has not had the most highly trained professional leaders. These are no longer the handicaps they once were. The curriculum may be broadened readily with the help of independent study courses, and other methods discussed in Chapter IV. School staffs are obtaining the training needed for counseling. Where need is felt for outside assistance, that should be readily obtained from a cooperating state center. We will make much more rapid progress in the development of a guidance program for the small school if we fit that program to the needs and conditions as they really exist instead of trying to imitate urban schools. In this lack of emphasis on city precedent we will find to our pleasure that the many advantages of the small school are important allies working with us.

Conclusion

In conclusion, then, a guidance program in a small school is feasible if, first, we set out to reveal to our pupils the educational and vocational opportunities that are open to them in the world today; second, if we undertake to know the child, that is, to learn everything about him and his environment which is of importance in helping him plan his educational and vocational career; and third, if we use, in an understanding and intelligent way, those facts that are brought together. This involves correct interpretation by advisers who have the know-how and a professional spirit; it involves also, the development of a curriculum which will enable the school to do something about these

important facts that are obtained. Such a curriculum can be obtained if we bind ourselves together in a cooperative enterprise, calling upon one or more of the agencies established and supported by the state to assist in this. Finally, we must draw our communities into a cooperative program of training and placement.

If the blue print shown in this chapter proves to be as practical as it has been presented as being, the school that adapts the recommendations to its particular needs and puts them to full use will find itself considerably different from the typical school, and it will also be a more important and valuable institution than it was before. It will not only be contributing to the general or common needs of its young people--and that is what it is doing best at present--it will also be contributing to their individual needs and thus making more meaningful the ideal, "Equality of educational opportunity for all." And as it builds for happier and more useful individual citizenship, it will also promote the group welfare of the community.

CHAPTER IX

ADULT EDUCATION IN THE SMALL COMMUNITY SCHOOL

When Cooperative Extension was introduced early in this century adult education was given a stimulus which has had a momentous influence in changing farm and home practices. The productivity of the farm in yield per acre or in efficiency, both in crop production and in raising livestock, has shown a trend upward which is continuing unabated. To use an illustration from the prairie states, while the cost of bringing an acre of corn to maturity has increased, the yield per acre has grown much faster than the cost. Contributing to this phenomenon are improved seed, fertilizers, tillage methods, revised findings as to the plant population an acre will support, control of plant diseases, harvesting methods, use of irrigation and grain storage techniques. On one hand the USDA contributes to the research that brings these developments about and on the other hand it supports policies that control over-all output in order to prevent a glutting of the market. The bread basket of America is not recognizable today by comparison with the situation that prevailed as recently as the 1930's.

Extension, so successful in farming, has had a similar influence on the home. Labor-saving methods are used to a greater and greater extent, preparation of food has been made more economical in time and more is constantly being learned about diet and nutrition. Homes are more attractive through what is being taught about design and decorating. In short, homes are both more liveable and comfortable and they are more convenient.

With our nation becoming so largely urbanized, the methods of cooperative extension are being brought into the towns and cities. Cooperative Extension has played and is continuing to play a great role in adult education in rural areas and now is coming in larger population centers.

Other Factors Related to Adult Education

In the past, when the productivity of adults declined rather rapidly by middle life for many reasons, including hard labor and lack of full understanding of what constitutes healthful practices, we had tended to believe that learning came to a halt as the decline in productivity began. A commonly repeated saying was, "You can't teach an old dog new tricks." Edward L. Thorndike was not ready to accept that assumption without proof so with the help of a Carnegie grant he examined the learning of adults, using tasks like memorizing the alphabet backward or learning to write with the hand not normally used. He found that although the individual may acquire knowledge and skill more slowly as he grows older he can still learn. The outcome of Thorndike's experiments disposed of the hurdle most people assumed stood in the way of adult learning. If there is a reason for continuing to learn, people can do it well even until senility begins.[1]

The situation in adult life today adds urgency to adult education. Automation and cybernation have become so important in the production of goods and the provision of services that human labor is needed in

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[1] Thorndike and others, Adult Learning, Macmillan, 1933.

smaller and smaller degree. Work opportunities available may require one to enter a new type of employment which requires skills that must be learned.

Shorter hours per week and earlier retirement are practices that are being adopted. As the individual is learning to expand the years during which he has health he is at the same time more and more denied the opportunity to use his skills. That is not inspiring to the human spirit. Stagnation is a danger the individual faces. How can his life continue to be forward-looking? Adult education can help provide the answer. As his weekly wage-earning hours are reduced other challenging possibilities must take their place. A more productive level of living, emotionally and ethically, is desired. That is not easy to attain. Little is known about how to achieve it. Adult education is a guide but there is much to learn about how adult education can be helpful. Lacking the ultimate answer, society can still do much through proven adult education practices.

Perhaps it has been implied that adult education principally serves a community need or a recognition of a desire for greater vocational or professional skill. Much of adult education does involve these objectives. There is yet another category that comes under the heading of personal satisfaction and growth in learning something new. Many small communities have developed evening programs to serve that purpose. There are in those programs some elements of the previously referred to satisfying of community needs, but it is also the development of personal potential for its own sake and not to serve a community need necessarily or to improve oneself professionally.

The Community School and Adult Education

A community school must include the education of its adults in all areas. A community school does not really exist unless those who are beyond the regular school years participate, as opportunity affords in helping educate those who are in school. Such persons will not do so as certified teachers but as valuable contributors to learning because of some special knowledge or skill. This participation results in an important kind of adult education since it is pointed toward stimulation of group and individual learning. It is a logical step for men and women of the community, often in their own groups, but sometimes with those of school age, to have as their purpose setting out specifically to gain and make use of knowledge, skills, insights and other broadened experiences.

Participation in community musical activities, vocal or instrumental, or dramatic productions are examples of effective merged youth and adult activities. The community orchestra or band, for example, can be part youth and part adult. This is not just making the best of a necessary compromise. It is often the most desirable situation for a community. The students, when through school, may stay in the area as young adults. If they leave the community, their places will be taken by others still in school who by that time will have the necessary competence in performance. Young people are simply participants in the community activity without undue attention being focused on them.

Other illustrations could relate to work in local business activities, additional church responsibilities and many other matters important to the community.

Adult education as thus described is not a series of unrelated activities. The thread of continuity that should run through all of its phases is a clear relationship to the development of more effective membership in the community as well as in family and personal life. McClusky emphasized this point when he defined adult education:

> To lead adults into an understanding and enjoyment of community and to equip them to exercise a practical control over their common life. A corollary of this thesis is that the experience of community and exercise of control can be most effectively achieved through understanding and participation in meeting the needs of people living together in neighboorhoods and communities. [1]

Intensive Training Through Short-term Residency

There are at least a small number of people in each community who, in order to keep abreast of the profession that is their life work, devote time in meetings to specialized training that pushes back their frontier of skill or comprehension. In most states at least one institution of higher learning provides the facilities for such concentrated work. The Kellogg Foundation of Battle Creek, Michigan began its encouragement of this activity by assisting in financing the construction of an institution providing meeting rooms, housing and meals on the campus of Michigan State University. This set the pattern for facilities on a number of other campuses. The term "continuing education" was often included in the name of the facility--the Nebraska Center for Continuing Education and the Georgia Center for Continuing Education, for example. This is in

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[1] Howard Y. McClusky, "The Community Approach to Adult Education," University of Michigan School of Education Bulletin. 15:84, March 1944.

keeping with the purpose of the activity.

Cooperative extension increasingly finds an established center for continuing education a useful facility. As agriculture has become more complex and as people engaged in agriculture have become specialists, a greater role for continuing education centers has evolved. Many of the men who operate the farm or livestock enterprises find it both possible and profitable to get away for as long as a week or so at a time to gain further skill and knowledge in some phase of the agricultural program.

Some of the largest industrial enterprises have for a number of years used specialized training in a residential facility to instruct men and women of promise in areas which require skill that cannot be acquired on the job. The great automobile corporations send their personnel to such training centers. The number of employees is so large that facilities used by them alone, for example, Ford or General Motors are built, privately owned and equipped. They may even identify young people of promise and provide a specialized type of post-secondary work which gives them a strong incentive to remain with the company training them, or to go with another employer producing a similar product.

CHAPTER X

THE FACULTY AND EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM IN THE SMALL COMMUNITY SCHOOL

The faculty in the small community school may be somewhat different than the faculty in the urban school, although faculties, regardless of the size of the school, have much in common. At present, teachers of small schools more generally lack the permanence of residence of those who teach in cities. It is this problem that will be first considered.

Permanent Residency of Faculty

The faculty of the small school should preferably be members of the community, participating in the community life as regular citizens do. This means that they will not come into the community five days a week during working hours, then go to their homes in larger population centers when the day's work is done. Other people make their homes in the school community, rear their families there and use the institutions, including the school, for the purposes for which they have been developed. Teachers should be regular members of the community, also.

The situation that has just been described, on occasion cannot be fully realized. When many others in the community work in a nearby population center it may be impractical to employ teachers who make the school district their residence. Inadequacy of locally available housing may be a problem. Residence in the local community is generally the objective sought, however, and so far as feasible it should be achieved.

As the community plans for its teachers to be regularly involved as citizens, the teachers are apt to look upon their responsibilities in a more mature way. The community will think of them as established responsible individuals who maintain homes, rear families and contribute on a broad continuing basis rather than as specialized employees who are superfluous or unemployed during the summer months so far as the community in which they teach is concerned.

Year-Round Employment

Since teachers are public employees and are required to have up-to-date knowledge and skill in their profession, the contract should require a certain amount of in-service training periodically. As this chapter will indicate, that can be realized while still making possible a longer school year. Teachers should look forward to a month free of any school requirements. For the rest of the summer period the schedule should be under the direction of the local school board. Teaching effectiveness depends upon more than technical skill, though. For that reason the way in which a teacher spends the months not in the classroom should be based on general guidelines adapted in part to the wishes of the teacher, in part to the needs of the pupils and also to the prevailing plans operative in the state.

How will all of this be brought about with individuals who are accustomed to an unstructured plan during the summer months? The salary received by the teacher should be in accordance with the months spent in the service of the school. If a teacher is given one month of vacation during the summer, the salary will be based on a full year rather than

nine or ten months. The mother who is also a teacher but who feels she must be at home with her children through the summer months will expect to accept a corresponding salary adjustment. A shortened school year should not be approved except when the occasion justifies it. The usual arrangement should be eleven months of active service each year, which requires a salary that is eleven-ninths of the amount paid for nine months of teaching service.

What has been said probably should be applied to schools regardless of size, certainly to small community schools--schools which, except for federally assisted vocational programs, have usually been closed after commencement, not to reopen until the fall semester. When the labor of the school youth was needed on the farm the schools were closed when that labor was required. On farms today youth labor is not often needed for preparation of the soil or planting in the spring and harvesting in the fall. This is a basic reason for school activity planned in a way appropriate to the development of the pupil.

Summer Employment of Youth

Although full-time summer employment for youth is the exception rather than the rule today there will be some youth whose services are needed. The school faculty should look at the situation realistically. Work experience is so valuable that in developing a schedule for the high school youth during June and July a few will probably be excused from any attendance in summer school and some others will give only certain hours or days to school attendance during the summer months. Those adjustments are not a concession. Work is a very important

summer activity. In fact, if everyone's labor was needed in the summer, two months should not be added to the nine-month school year.

For the teacher who is employed on a year-round basis the summer activities will often not be teaching as is customary during the period September through May but it need not be less valuable educationally. Alternatives to teaching are discussed later in this chapter.

Qualifications of the Teaching Staff

Chapter IV showed how the small high school need not be restricted in its offerings because of a limited number of pupils. It has available for its use as needed, such techniques as multiple classes, independent study by correspondence and educational television. Standards for instruction are not relaxed but when a regularly employed member of the local faculty does not qualify, someone serving a number of schools does. It may be the correspondence teacher at a center who approves the credit when earned. This flexibility relieves schools of any handicap caused by lack of instructor qualification for teaching a particular subject. That does not mean lowering standards which remain fully as high as before. It does mean that faculty are judged more in terms of their actual potential service to the whole community and less by their qualifications for teaching a particular subject. If, when the faculty has been chosen, there is no one to teach a foreign language, the principal will turn to another method, independent study or television, for example. Small community schools need not suffer any restriction because of the relatively small number of subjects taught by the locally employed staff. Let us use mathematics as an example. The school

will certainly employ a mathematics teacher certified by the state for teaching the mathematics subjects in the basic program. The teacher, however, may not be qualified to teach advanced mathematics courses. In that case the school turns to independent study or perhaps television teaching. The administrator of the small school, with the board's approval, determines which teaching method is to be used. Because the faculty will tend to be more stable under the proposed plan, the school teaches only what the faculty is qualified to offer within the limits of the teaching load it can assume. There will be less turnover and fewer changes that need to be made because of faculty qualifications. The greater part of the adaptation to pupil need will come from special demands that arise each year. New faculty may be needed because of resignations, leaving to the board the decision as to the method of teaching to be used.

There is always the matter of economy to be considered and the most efficient method of providing a subject should be adopted. However, the subject should not be omitted because a particular method of teaching is not feasible. One can turn to another. In planning a curriculum, then, the deciding factor is not whether a faculty member is available as teacher, but whether the need is actual and, if so, what is the most economical method of offering the subject. No pupil who has clear need or purpose in his school work should be asked to accept a course program less valuable than the most desirable one. Once the need is established the question to be answered is how the activity can most effectively be provided.

The plan proposed does not ignore the teaching qualifications of a particular faculty but shows a flexibility which does not require an adjustment of the faculty if a special need arises. Alternative methods of offering a particular subject or activity are available. It is a matter of choosing the one that best serves the school's and the pupil's need within realistic economic limits.

Orientation of the Faculty

It has been implied that the faculty members should be mature enough in point-of-view not to believe that a community must be of a particular minimum or maximum size to provide opportunities for full living. Each particular size of community probably provides certain inherent advantages. A large center of population may place one in geographically closer contact with people of similar interests. A smaller community can provide the opportunity for closer acquaintance with parents generally. A person in a leadership role, and that is what a teacher is, comes to know what the people are like and builds from there. There is no place among educational leaders for adverse criticism; there is room and time only for deeper understanding and, so far as opportunity affords, for constructive endeavor. With the transportation available today ingrown communities need not exist. The same movies and TV programs are shown and the same books may be read. Other cultural and recreational opportunities are seldom more than an hour away. A broad base of equality of education is already a fact. There are shorter working hours. A need for lifelong learning is a matter of universal significance and concern. As the needs and

the opportunities become more alike in both large and small communities the justification for assigning a certain characteristic to one size group but not to the other disappears.

Some Practical Problems

This chapter proposes the eleven-month school as the school of the future, yes, the desired school of the present. The need for it arises from the drastically changed situation with regard to employment for youth except with assistance from the school. Society knows that useful work is a necessary part of life during the growing up years and of course throughout adulthood. Today, though, employment often cannot be provided for youth except by teamwork.

In Chapter II there was a discussion of work as part of the youth's program during the school year. In this section the summer months are dealt with more especially. Summer is a quite different time of year for most children and teenagers than it was decades ago. At one time, at least in small towns and rural areas there was employment on the farms for boys and work in the homes for girls in food preservation. These work opportunities have in most cases disappeared, leaving the summer months either disorganized and largely wasted with respect to employment or totally lost as positive influences. Schools must now take seriously a share of summer responsibility for school-age pupils in these communities.

The broadened responsibility of the school will lengthen the school year from nine to eleven months, with August left free. The board of education is bound to recognize legitimate reasons why teachers with

heavy responsibilities in the home must limit their employment to nine months, or teachers needing additional work must be away at graduate school. In the latter case such summer graduate work is not a regular or permanent arrangement, and in the case of the parent with heavy home responsibilities that situation will not be permanent, either. Moreover, as schools extend their terms to eleven months, home responsibilities will be less different during June and July than when school ends with nine months. The overriding consideration is that there be an adequate staff for the summer months.

The Educational Program

More specific attention is given in this chapter to the summer high school program than to the elementary school program. In many ways they are alike in structure. The elementary school day may be of the same length. Most of the elementary pupils will simply be strengthening themselves for the year ahead by gaining a more penetrating view of their schoolwork through field trips and related readings. During the six-year period they will have one or more camping experiences under school or other auspices. If the pupils, for one reason or another, have reached a desirable achievement level, they will be given individual help or remedial work in small groups. Under carefully planned policies they may be allowed to complete a year of work and thus gain an extra promotion during the summer months. Not often involved but desirable will be remunerative work excusing them from summer school. Fine arts will play perhaps a larger part in the day's work than is true in high school. On occasion a special hobby can be developed. The grade

school years provide a wonderful time for productive summer study and experience.

A greater percent of people take vacations today than in years past. The indication is that the percentage of those who vacation will continue to grow for various reasons, none of which are vital to this discussion. Since vacations are increasingly common, when school continues to eleven months the time away from the community is simply part of the schedule and accepted as such. If families vacation in August, there is no impact on the school and the faculty because there are no school activities at that time. Temporary absences for vacations during June and July are equally acceptable.

Summer Camps

Many pupils already attend camps for Girl Scouts or Campfire Girls, for Boy Scouts, for church groups or for other organizations that have special and legitimate interests. Familiarity with the camping program of the pupil may show that the length and the type of the programs are adequate and that these pupils may continue interruptedly except for possible family vacations during the two-month period the schools are in session. Since an opportunity for camping should be provided more than once, attendance at a church or "Y" camp one summer does not, during the child's school years, preclude attendance at a school or special interest camp another summer. This does not mean that camping will be a yearly occurrence. Camps, though, are an important part of the summer program and should not be omitted. To the extent that ample camping experiences are not provided under non-school auspices, schools should make camps part of their program.

Study in School

Students will generally be in attendance at summer school at least during the forenoon five days a week. If the building is air conditioned, and the schools are increasingly equipped for air conditioning, there may be a school lunch and an early afternoon program, too. The decision as to what the daily schedule will be is properly left to the board of education, but except for time away from schools for camping and vacations, the work will generally fall in one or more of these categories:

(1) Strengthening of the school work carried on during the nine-month school year. This consists, in part, of review of work not adequately mastered and, in part, supplementary work that adds meaning to the work already covered.

(2) Remedial work for the pupil who has fallen behind or who needs review and reinforcement of work already covered or that lies ahead.

(3) Advanced study for the rapid learner who hopes to enter college or university qualified to take examinations by which he may gain advanced standing, and

(4) Work in the fine arts. The first three are alternatives but (4) should be part of everyone's program.

Probably the greatest percent of the pupils who attend summer high school will be in group one. They are the ones who are not in trouble or are not seeking beginning college credit through advanced standing; they are the part of the regular school body that can profit by either reviewing school work already covered or by studying references or perhaps taking field trips which enrich the study that lies ahead. The work should not be a preview of the next year's program but rather throw light on the subject to be covered which cannot so well be provided when the school is in session during the regular year. There can be field trips to courts, town council meetings, industry or business and there can be

use of references in anticipation of regular textbook study. Lending libraries can probably make certain types of reading material more quickly available than when all schools are in full session.

Study for Advanced Standing

In Chapter IV special accelerated work not for completing regular high school courses in less than normal time, but in anticipation of advanced standing upon entrance to college or university, has already been discussed. For that reason further consideration here is unnecessary, except to remind the reader that summer school is an excellent time for such work. Classwork for this level of study is usually not a feasible pattern in the small high school but independent study by correspondence is. The teacher serving as supervisor will have the usual responsibility for providing encouragement and stimulus, administering examinations, sending in papers and distributing them to the pupils upon their return. College or university attendance has now become so expensive and the need for advancement into higher level college courses so important in many cases that study for advanced standing represents an important opportunity.

Remedial Work

Remedial study provides a valuable opportunity for pupils who are not presently up to standard, perhaps because of previous illness, or because of a temporary or long-standing difficulty of some type. This work may not be individual study altogether. Some work may be feasible and helpful in small groups. Individual coaching may be the best

answer most of the time, as long as someone is available who can assist on a teacher-to-individual pupil basis.

Fine Arts

This is the phase of the summer school in which all should participate. In most cases pupils will rehearse and perform in appropriate music or dramatic groups or they will do art work. The summer months represent an important opportunity to enjoy music, dramatics or art. More specifically, participation in the fine arts program may lead to art exhibits, choral programs, band concerts and children's theater for youngsters. A culmination of the summer's activities, when that is feasible, results in a feeling of achievement that is particularly satisfying and it is a desirable outcome of the work in which all have a part. A skilled teacher can do a great deal with that opportunity.

Conclusion

In the discussion of summer camps, additional study, enrichment, study for advanced standing, remedial work and the fine arts, the reader will gain an over-all picture of what can be accomplished by adding two months to the regular school year. With a month between the close of the summer school and the opening of the fall term pupils and teachers alike should return refreshed and prepared for the regular school year. It should be reiterated that the two added months are not simply more of the same type of work but represent an opportunity for gaining fresh points of view, maturity, and increased strength in subject matter.

CHAPTER XI

THE SMALL SCHOOL PLANT

A school plant should not be merely a cluster of classrooms and laboratories, each housing from twenty to forty pupils for periods of a given length, with pretty well standardized kinds of activities. Instead, provision must be made for a great variety of learning activities. This means that teachers have a greater diversity of roles than was considered necessary some years ago. Chapter XI takes into account the implications of these developments in the planning of a suitable plant for the small school. This plant will usually house all twelve grades and kindergarten, although that is not always the case.

Ingenuity is required to provide facilities at an acceptable per-pupil cost in the small school which are as functional and satisfactory as the facilities provided for pupils in the better large schools. Certainly the small school plant cannot meet this requirement by having its rooms and corridors proportionate to the enrollment. School designers have attempted this on several occasions and have found themselves with spaces so small as to be largely useless. Small schools are not miniatures of large schools. Fortunately, present trends in school plant planning make it less difficult than formerly for the small school to obtain facilities comparable in useability to those which are necessary in the large school.

Some Basic Principles

In planning a small school plant the following principles have proved to be valid. The soundness of any design under consideration should be

checked against them. A variety of structures is possible so long as the general requirements are met.

1. There should be flexibility with respect to the several instructional areas. Some of the partitions should glazed, permitting supervision by an instructor who has other responsibilities in an adjoining room.

2. The school plant should be planned for use by the whole community and not for the school age population alone.

3. The instructional areas should be so designed that they are suitable for more than one type of use, often including use by a considerable age range of individuals.

4. The plant should be planned for effective use of instructional media.

5. Suitable areas should be provided for large and for small group instruction and for individual study.

6. Account should be taken of the likelihood of a changing size of student body. In many school attendance areas considerable increases will come about. This means that an expansible plant should be built. There is the possibility also, that the size of the student body attending a particular school may drop, for example, because of a shift in the district from residential to industrial use or an increase in farm size and farm mechanization or simply because the size of families is declining.

7. Thought should be given to the possibility of alteration of the existing school plant as well as to new plant design. Many communities by prudent alteration of existing school plants can increase their effectiveness at a relatively modest per-pupil cost. This has the advantage of not requiring a community to stand still in its building program until a new structure is provided.

8. It should be assumed that effective use will be made of the community's resources in the educational program.

Some Uses of Multiple Supervision

Examples are given of several common forms of multiple supervision which are illustrative of the first of the principles just stated. Other examples

might be presented, growing out of needs not dealt with here. They will generally follow one of the patterns indicated in the illustrations.

Library or Library Study Hall (or Materials Center)

An element not fully considered as a rule in planning a library or materials center is multiple supervision. Because the number using the library may be small as compared with the number in the large school library, the individual in charge may have some other responsibility at the same time he is supervising the library. This could mean teaching a class, carrying on administrative responsibilities within the room, or individual counseling, if privacy can be maintained through the use of glazed partitions. The greater the confidence the students have in their own integrity and that of the supervisor the greater the likelihood of the success of multiple supervision.

In Chapter III it was stated that the library may be part of a media center. This responsibility could be of such proportion that the supervisor must devote his time entirely to the activities that are carried on there. Multiple supervision is still used but in that case it is all within or a part of the media center.

Business Subjects

Typing lends itself particularly well to multiple supervision. Some instruction must be given to the whole class but after learning the keyboard and other basic principles time will be spent principally in practice, with the excellent texts that are available today. In small schools full-time supervision by a teacher is not required. The most economical arrangement could well be to have a glazed partition closing off an

adequately lighted part of the room. Perhaps 10 pupils will be working in the enclosed portion. Ventilation should be adequate and the teacher who is within view of the pupils should be able to enter readily through an otherwise closed door if assistance is needed.

Bookkeeping may present a need for closer supervision than does typing. Since there is more reading, comprehension may be more difficult. Possibly the solution is to remove bookkeeping from the group of subjects required of everyone as it is in some schools and to substitute several subjects each of which has particular value for a smaller number of pupils. Stated in other words, as a school gains greater flexibility in the subjects it offers, perhaps using methods presented in Chapter IV, it need not accept work less than satisfactory simply because there is nothing available that really serves the needs of particular pupils. The plans presented in that chapter, with all the resources available to the school that have been discussed, meet pupil needs as well in the small school as in the urban school. There need be no "make-do."

The Community Room

Although any part of the building should be available to the community as it is needed when it is not otherwise in use, there should be at least one room planned more for adults than others. This we will identify as the community room. First of all, it serves committees that would not otherwise have a convenient meeting place. Perhaps even more important, the location of the room adjacent to the stacks of the school library makes it possible to use the room as the community

library without interfering with the administration of the school in any way. Library tables near the stacks facilitate the above-mentioned use of the room. A door provides access to or from the library proper whenever that is necessary. An outside door frees the school from interruptions caused by community room activities. A small number of lockers or hangers for outdoor clothing are provided within the room, eliminating the necessity of persons in the community room entering a school corridor to reach these facilities. Other conveniences for community activities are provided, including storage for records, tapes and supplies used by various community organizations; a hot plate with adjacent cabinet space which may be used to store dishes, pans, etc.; a sink; a chalkboard and a bulletin board area. Space is provided for pupil groups small enough not to need a large area for meetings. Several nests of chairs facilitate this use. Provision for heating this room independent of the rest of the building may well be made.

The School Office

One room should be designed in which all the office activities of a small twelve-grade school or a high school may be carried on. It can use as little as one classroom unit of space and at the same time provide an inner office, an outer office, a secretary's office, a students' workroom, a bookroom, a supply room and a vault. The administrator's inner office should be so located that it is accessible to the secretary without the necessity of her passing through the outer office. A glazed partition on one side of the inner office and doors with glass panels on the other make it possible for the superintendent to supervise activities in adjacent areas, and at the same time, insure the

privacy of any conversations he may hold within the inner office. It is suggested that the library-study hall may be placed beyond the glass partition of the inner office and that the superintendent may thus supervise activities in that room when he is in the office and when only a few pupils are in the library-study hall. Such a possibility will eliminate the necessity of keeping a teacher in the library-study hall when few students are using it. The students' workroom, which can also serve satisfactorily as a meeting place for the school board, has a large table, an equipment table near an outside window and a supply window opening into the secretary's office. The bookroom is placed in a convenient position, but is out of the way of most activities, which is desirable since it will be used comparatively infrequently compared with the other parts of the office. One additional feature of the room should be a door allowing the superintendent to leave his office through the library-study hall without having to pass through the outer office.

Other illustrations of multiple supervision could be given. There will very likely be such uses. They will follow the same basic principles as illustrated above, though, so no effort will be made to discuss all possibilities here.

Use of the School Building by the Whole Community

There was a time when except for very special occasions, the school building was locked after regular school hours, not to be reopened until pupils came together the next day. The community school operates according to the principle that the plant belongs to the entire

community to be used efficiently, to be sure, but not to be closed to any public service use. Illustrations are given here of planning and use which make that principle effective. In discussing the community room as an example of use by both pupils and adults it was dealt with under the heading of multiple supervision but it could just as well be presented as community use because that is its basic purpose. The whole building is not thrown open to accommodate one group meeting. Only one part of the building is available unless there is occasion for more extensive use.

The Gymnasium-Auditorium

For a time, the combined gymnasium-auditorium for the small school was in disfavor. It was often held that a school regardless of the cost of the facility must have a gymnasium and a separate auditorium. Since that is often an unrealistic view, the combined gymnasium-auditorium is again being recommended for small schools. The important consideration here is that this room has an important place in the adult program of the school for physical activities on the one hand and for community programs on the other.

The gymnasium-auditorium should include a large playing floor. This large floor is often needed for physical education activities and also for athletic contests played before an audience. A door at either end of the playing floor provides access to the bleachers without requiring those who enter to cross that floor. Dressing rooms, equipment rooms, and showers are provided in combination units for boys and for girls. Toilet facilities in these rooms are adequate for

auditorium and gymnasium use. The stage is placed at the side next to the corridor of the building proper, thus making it possible to obtain expanded dressing room facilities by the use of nearby classrooms. The gymnasium-auditorium unit may be cut off from the building proper by locking the double doors at each corridor entrance to the gymnasium-auditorium unit, and either the building or the gymnasium-auditorium may be used separately. The plan has the advantage of making both the stage and the bleachers available from the building proper without going outside the structure. Furthermore, the entire unit, with the exception of the stage floor, is on the same level. Lighting and ventilating provisions for this unit are excellent since the sides of the playing floor are utilized for this purpose and no windows are placed near the basketball goals.

School Shop

A community school that provides for both youth and adults includes a general shop and often makes provision for instruction in agriculture. A plan which includes a comprehensive general shop and agriculture classroom may require only the floor space of a regular room. This room provides for twelve pupils at a time, which capacity is generally adequate for a high school of seventy-five pupils or less. Multiple supervision can be achieved by means of a glazed opening at the end of the room just behind the teacher's desk. Equipment is provided for both agriculture and general shop activities. Two woodworking benches will accommodate eight students at one time. A forge is provided, and a large overhead door, metal and electrical benches,

and student tables for discussion or recitation activities. For the very small school which finds it possible or advisable to provide only a single shop, this plan is a practical solution. When the shop is not in use by school youth it is available for adults.

If need be, more space can be provided then in the relatively small one-room plan just discussed. Woodworking benches will still accommodate eight pupils, as did the other one-classroom unit, but more floor space is available for use in repairing farm machinery and for other types of activities requiring considerable room. Additional space around the wall can also be provided, also benches for glazing, finishing, pipe and plumbing service or repair, concrete, cold metal, soldering, and electrical work. Multiple supervision could be arranged by a glazed opening behind the teacher's desk or over the concrete or pipe and plumbing benches.

As an alternative suggestion, a mezzanine floor could be placed at one end of the room for storage, then converting the general storage area into a finishing room. This will not only make available more floor space in the shop proper, but will provide a room comparatively free from dust for use as the finishing room.

A still larger design can accommodate a maximum of 22 youth or adults. A special feature of this plan is the classroom extension that may be added if desired, which proves especially valuable when the shop is used for vocational agriculture. Woodworking benches accommodate eighteen pupils at one time, while other benches are located either around the wall or in the open floor area for painting, pipe and machine work, grinding, metal work, sheet iron and electrical

work. A large overhead door permits the moving in and out of large farm machinery, with more ample floor space available for repair and adjustment. Multiple supervision of the two rooms may be secured by the use of glass panels in a dividing door. This shop is especially desirable from the standpoint of lighting, since both sides contain windows. It may be constructed either as a separate building or as a wing of the school proper.

Homemaking

Just as shops should be planned for both youth and adults, so should homemaking rooms. When not being used by girls the space should be available for women and for the same purposes as for girls in school. Plans, therefore, are not especially adapted for adult use. That is not necessary. It is advisable, though, that the room or rooms be so located with respect to the rest of the building that they can be used by themselves without throwing open the whole school plant. Toilets must be available, of course, but they, too, can be isolated in the evenings from the rest of the building.

Instructional Media

During the period after World War II and until the 1960s, when teachers were in short supply, some educators held out the possibility that instructional media--educational television, programed instruction, foreign language laboratories and even filmed courses--could replace some teachers and thus require a smaller teaching staff per hundred pupils. That possibility has been given up but this in no way lessens

need for the use of instructional media to make teaching more effective.

Educational television. The use of educational television in school requires relatively few building adaptations. Rooms in which it is used, the auditorium and all classrooms, should have opaque curtains, and there should be outlets in each room because the monitors which are usually on stands will be wheeled from room to room. In other words, there will be fewer monitors than rooms in which they may be used. These matters have been discussed in some detail in Chapter VI.

Other audio-visual aids. With adequate provisions made for educational television, other audio-visual media, tape recorders, slide projectors, etc., can be used without difficulty and without further adaptation in wiring or lighting.

Large Group Instruction and Individual Study

There is a need for individual study carrels in the small high school, and need also for a room large enough for the whole high school to meet together. Where the carrels should be placed depends on the design of the building. There will be but few of them and they will probably be part of the library-study hall. The large meeting room will usually be in the gymnasium-auditorium. The bleachers will be ample in capacity to accommodate the pupils during regular assemblies. The gymnasium will be used as a meeting space only with larger audiences so chairs need not be moved in for pupil assemblies.

The Elementary Grades

With most school buildings the planning for grades kindergarten

through six will be much the same in small as in large schools. The small elementary school in the same building as the high school is probably at somewhat of an advantage because it can have available the specialized building facilities which are not in every case found in large elementary schools. There is generally a play room in the large elementary school but a regulation gymnasium is likely to be in the high school only and not in the elementary school. The differences are few, though, so the building characteristics of an elementary school are not discussed further here.

The Twelve Grade Building as a Whole

Most of this chapter has been given over to the unique characteristics of the individual rooms which together provide the most effective educational program. The final stage is to fit the parts into a building. Perhaps every characteristic cannot be included in a single structure. The conditions that exist do not make any particular building design preferable in all cases.

CHAPTER XII

SOME ALTERNATIVES IN ADMINISTRATIVE AND SERVICE UNITS

Early in the nineteenth century cities began to give up the idea that each school must have its own separate and independent administration. The practice of unifying the administration of city schools began, in fact, in the 1830s and before many years it had become universal. The advantages of centralized city administration now seem so obvious that few would consider a return to the earlier plan. Well-trained administrative leadership and highly skilled specialists, support with a broadened financial base, flexibility in defining attendance areas, and coordinated building planning are some of the advantages that accompany the city district plan. Those same advantages can often be realized with small schools by what are called intermediate units but which in some cases have functions that are more restricted than those performed by the typical school district.

In many areas it was at first assumed that the intermediate unit, that is, the unit between the state and the individual school district should be the county. In a county system made up largely of one-room schools as was once the case in the middle west and certain other parts of the nation such a plan had many advantages. County-wide leadership was provided and in-service education could operate on the same basis. However, county superintendents were often elected by popular vote and even on party ballots, with limited professional qualifications required. If salaries were low, as was often the case, better qualified educators

were not interested. Moreover, as district reorganization became more common and with that reorganization, 12-grade school systems headed by local superintendents of schools, the county superintendent came to be outranked by the heads of these reorganized schools. The result was that the leadership of the county superintendent tended to become more and more marginal. What may happen to county superintendents as a result is as yet not clear in all cases.

The prevailing form of organization in the farming sections of the central west was not always used elsewhere. In Utah with sparcely settled areas very common, there is no administrative unit between the school district and the state. Hawaii has only one district, the state. In West Virginia and certain other states there are county units only, always fewer than one hundred. In states which on the whole are more densely populated but have some small schools, a number of the individual schools within the county may be organized into a unit under one administration, the advantage being greater assurance of unbroken professional leadership. When some services such as music, art, health are utilized cooperatively by several schools, greater efficiency and effectiveness are achieved than if each school works with the county superintendent. Since states differ so much in population density, one cannot point to a plan of administration that is equally suited to all states, or even to all parts of a single state.

Some Efforts to Strengthen Intermediate Districts

Improvements in the intermediate district plan are being sought in several ways. One is to make the county administrator of schools a

fully qualified professional person with an adequate salary and with appointment by a county board rather than popular election. Professional qualifications should be at least as high as those of the better qualified local school administrators in the county. Another is to create a new unit of administration. This latter plan is one of the procedures with which Chapter XII is concerned.

County lines when originally drawn sometimes resulted from pressures and considerations unrelated to economic or educational needs. As a result there are occasionally too few pupils for a satisfactory county unit, from the standpoint of administration. A county line might even cut through a town that had developed after adjoining counties were established. This has meant a situation that is certainly not ideal.

The outcome of the dissatisfactions and inadequacies already referred to in this chapter has spurred attempts to find a more effective type of intermediate unit. Efforts are being made to form units having reasonable social and geographic boundaries, which permit the maintenance of schools of satisfactory minimum size, which make it unnecessary for younger children to travel unduly far, and which are large enough to permit the employment of effective leadership and to secure the service of specialists.

An intermediate district, it will be noted, usually includes a number of attendance areas with bus transportation for pupils to their own school. These schools tend to vary considerably in size but they are of such limited enrollment that it would be uneconomical to require them to individually provide all the specialized services a school needs. Provisions of those services is often the responsibility of someone in the

largest school within the intermediate unit. The services might be provided in only two schools within the intermediate unit or in all the schools. The unit responsible for the cooperative service might even involve more schools than are included within one intermediate unit, with an administrator who has over-all responsibility for the service in that larger area. Responsibility is given to the intermediate unit or the combination of the several units for the allocation of costs according to an agreed-upon formula.

Each school within the intermediate unit draws its pupils from a particular attendance area. Children of elementary school age do not necessarily travel as far as those attending high school. Thus in a district in which there are too many elementary pupils for one building or where pupils live too far away to be transported readily to one central school, several schools may be used each being an attendance center within the intermediate district. Actually, the distribution of population is not the only factor considered in setting up attendance centers. Also considered is the location and quality of highways as well as climatic conditions. Both have a part in determining where the central school should be located. There are many localities where it is desirable for all the children from kindergarten through grade 12 to go to the same school. There are occasions, though, when the elementary schools can more economically be operated in their individual communities separated from the high school which serves as the central school. Either type of school may be an attendance area within an intermediate unit.

Legislation in various states with respect to intermediate districts may be permissive rather than mandatory. This would be the case because districts vary so much in number of pupils in attendance, or in ease of travel or in availability of services to one or a number of schools. To use two hypothetical illustrations: First of all, there may be the situation which points to the desirability of a total of four contiguous elementary schools and the one twelve-grade school. Each elementary school has a full-time or at least a teaching principal, depending on its size. The principal of the twelve-grade school provides over-all leadership for the elementary schools as well as for the twelve-grade school itself. Since most of the elementary school graduates will enter high school this unification of the administration is advantageous.

Among the services which small elementary schools may not be able to provide without cooperative effort are instruction for children of unusual promise or for the handicapped. It is within the individual school that day-to-day teaching is done but the over-all plans involve the administrator of the intermediate unit. In planning as to where the specialized services such as health and guidance are to come from, general administration plays a part. There should not be duplication of responsibilities in each small school. It is the administrator of the intermediate unit who has over-all responsibility.

Another illustration: There are cases where uniform policies are to be followed. This does not mean that the central administrator sets the policies arbitrarily. What is concluded to be best may be a matter of combined judgment of all schools involved. When decided, though, all

schools within the intermediate district conform to the policies that have been adopted. This results in economy of administration.

There are specialized teaching services which no one of the schools in the intermediate district may economically be able to give, but which can at a more reasonable cost be made available to a group of schools. Use music as an example. It may be considerably less expensive and as productive for a teacher of vocal or instrumental music to share his time among several small schools than it is for him to work in one school alone. Little time in the school day is lost through a teacher's travel to two or more schools. As was stated earlier in this chapter, if an intermediate district is small, the service of one specialist may be shared with another intermediate district. By sharing, more expert service may generally be obtained and arrangements can be made more economically than if each intermediate district proceeds independently.

The decision as to whether there should be an intermediate unit cannot be determined without examining the relevant factors involved. If, for example, there are two or three large population centers and only a handful of very small schools, one or several of the large schools perhaps should be responsible for general oversight of the small cluster of schools whose enrollment is limited. This is a sharing of the responsibilities for what would normally be incorporated into one intermediate district.

The intermediate unit is not a part of school organization that can be taken for granted as a segment of the over-all district plan. It is rather a part of a design which in certain situations will be useful, sometimes very useful. Whether to establish an intermediate district or to

dissolve it is usually left to the discretion of the state department of education or to the districts involved. The intermediate district under certain conditions adds materially to the operating economy of the school plan. The number of pupils in the attendance units may change, though, to the point that an intermediate district is no longer of value and when that condition occurs the districts can work directly with the county or with the state department of education. In other words, the intermediate district must have a definite value or it should not be continued.

Educational Service Units

Some states are using areas larger than county units which give services that are best provided by the cooperation of a number of school districts. In Nebraska, Omaha and Lincoln, the two districts with the largest populations, do not join with other districts since they can provide or obtain special instructional services effectively on their own. All other districts are or may be part of an educational service unit.

A part of Nebraska, principally the west and northeast, is presently outside any service unit. The establishment of a unit is optional. It may levy as much as one mill for services which it has been decided can be provided more effectively through cooperative effort. This means that the functions of service units are not standardized nor is the administrative responsibility placed under the same office in all units.

There are two aspects of the Nebraska plan that might be questioned. One is the lack of any official tie-in with the State Department of Education. A second is the present variation in the functions performed by service units. There should probably be more uniformity within the state.

Conclusion

This brief closing chapter presents only a sampling of plans for intermediate districts that are responsible for specialized services. It is evident that standardization with respect to district organization does not exist nor should it. What operates most effectively in one situation at a given time is not necessarily best under other conditions. Counties and other areas within a state change. Some gain in population; others lose. If we were tied to a plan of organization that was suitable in an earlier day, we might now be operating under serious handicaps. Periodically conditions that prevail at a given time in a given area must be reevaluated.